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MONOGRAPH IN EDUCATION

CO-OPERATIVE METHODS

IN THE DEVELOPMENT

OF SCHOOL SUPPORT

IN THE

UNITED STATES

A STUDY OF METHODS OF SUPPORTING SCHOOLS — IN THE COLONIES, BY THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT, BY THE STATES, A STATISTICAL STUDY OF SUPPORT FOR TWENTY-TWO YEARS, AND SOME RECENT TENDENCIES.

BY

ROLLAND MACLAREN STEWART, Ph. D.

Assistant Professor in the College of Education
of the State University of Iowa

Iowa City, 1914

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PREFATORY STATEMENT.

The extension and enrichment of our educational institutions have demanded a more thoughtful consideration of the business and administrative features of school systems. A full appreciation of the necessity of preventing waste and promoting efficiency in school systems has inspired in recent years a series of studies on problems of school finance. Before any evaluation of means and methods could be attempted, preliminary studies had to be made in order to present a reasonably satisfactory background.

It is the purpose of this study to illustrate the growth and development of education sufficiently to show how the agencies of educational progress have co-operated to accomplish certain purposes for which they thought education stood. It is not undertaken to present a chronological history of education in the United States; nor has it been the purpose to emphasize the importance of facts themselves. Rather, it is intended that the study should show the progressive change in methods of educational support, which accompanies the wholesome expression of spontaneous initiative.

The study has fallen into five general sections in such a way that the spirit of progressive change promoted by co-operative endeavor in supporting education might furnish the central correlating and coordinating problem of the investigation. It was thought essential to examine this problem in the various aspects suggested by the epochs of national educational progress: a study of methods among the colonists; the attitude and efforts of the United States Government; the principles underlying state systems and their effect upon this change; a statistical study to show the scope, growth, and analysis of funds in the various typical educational institutions of the country; and finally, some tendencies in the modern period, indicative of a co-operation in educational support of a still higher order.

This study has resulted therefore from an attempt to discover the sources of educational support and their relations to one another. This purpose has involved an attitude of interpretation though not in the sense of a final evaluation. An attempt has been made to understand the critical situations which the multiplicity of methods oftentimes presented, but no attempt has been made to formulate a comprehensive plan for financing educational agencies. The problem of evaluating the methods of these co-operating

agencies with special investigators for whom it is the hope this study may have some significance.

This investigation took form and direction first under the leadership of Professor Frederick E. Bolton, now director of the School of Education, at the State University of Washington, to whom are due the appreciation and thanks of the writer for his inspiration and guidance. The materials used were made available by a host of obliging school officers throughout the country whose co-operation has made the study possible. For corrections and criticisms in the manuscript forms, the writer is obligated to many others.

ROLLAND MACLAREN STEWART

The State University of Iowa
Iowa City, October, 1914.

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EDUCATIONAL SUPPORT IN THE COLONIES

"But the indigence of the greater number disabling them from educating, at their own expense, those of their children whom nature hath fitly formed and disposed to become useful instruments of the public, it is better that such should be sought for and educated at the common expense of all, than that the happiness of all should be confided to the weak or wicked."—THOMAS JEFFERSON. Extract from Section I of A Bill for the general diffusion of knowledge, the Colony of Virginia, 1779.

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INTRODUCTION

Education in the United States is unique. The expression of colonial life, made in the direction of school maintenance and support, springs from a spontaneous impulse,—an impulse fed by the notions of freedom and individuality. This peculiar expression of individuality characterizes all early progress in the affairs of the colonies. The colonists were Christians of an ardent type. They sought perfection of character through the understanding and practice of Christian doctrines. They were looking for the opportunity of service to God and to their fellowmen. This was the two-fold motivating force of the early colonial policy which made the colonies enthusiastic for education. To accomplish their purpose, a close dependence upon co-operation was fundamental, and their growth and development are largely in terms of such co-operation. The school was recognized as the most potent auxiliary in the prosecution of those ideals. Learning was sacred to them and therefore it was a religious obligation to provide for the education of their youth. Since the family assumed the responsibility of making of their children good citizens, believers in God and willing servants of the commonwealth, education was a matter of domestic concern.

The methods of supporting education in the colonies were simple and direct, because the principles underlying their education held a fundamental relation to the one thing, the salvation of the soul, whether demonstrated in a well grounded faith in God, or in the social activity of self-government. Each man recognized himself as his brother's keeper and assumed the responsibility of educating the children of others as well as his own.

The differentiation of educational procedure in this country came about through the specialization of church functions. In this chapter, an attempt will be made to present some situations out of which the various types of methods of school support have arisen. The attempts of the colonies to realize their ideals demanded a gradual perfection of means and methods,—and of course, a growing appreciation of the necessity and value of division of labor in

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prosecuting those ideals. More and more dependence was to be placed upon the school and church, since parents and guardians were coming to have less and less time for the education of the children under their care.

The life of the colonies was characterized by a spirit of co-operation, and this same spirit was carried into the work of establishing schools. The welfare of the colony demanded the "encouragement" of teachers. This was done through the spontaneity of individuals, or groups of individuals, who were prompted to the service by closely allied and effective motives. None of the methods were essentially new, rather, they were recapitulatory of the struggles of their mother countries. This spontaneity of expression and the peculiar nascency of the elements of their ideals, constitute the uniqueness of American education. Though the colonies practically without exception encouraged schools from the earliest time, yet it required the co-operative efforts of the colonies in this enterprise to keep learning from being buried in the graves of their forefathers.*

Since the dominating idea of colonial education was benevolence, the Government took the position of creating schools, leaving to private or church endeavor the task of supporting them.† After all, however, the Government supported the schools, since the individuals who made up the Government were at the same time members of congregations. It is with the differentiations of colonial life that the dangers of such loose organizations appear. The Government served to promote education through the organization of the church and private enterprises first, and later, of necessity, assumed direct responsibility. She purposed rather to be protector, guide, and only incidently assistant. This has remained a characteristic of the National Government in educational matters. In this "chance medley" of voluntary endeavor every kind of school found a place and each expressed a wholesome function, though all needed correlation and co-ordination. This need gave rise to systems which were later reconstructed.

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*See Mass. Colonial Records, 1647, Vol. II, p. 203.

†Blackmar: Federal and State Aid To Higher Education in the United States. U. S. Bureau of Education., Circ. of Inf., 1890, p. 21.

METHODS OF SUPPORT

Grant of Lands

Among the methods employed in securing school establishment and maintenance, the grant of land has always had an important place; however, grants of this kind must be supported by other gifts usually before the returns from land can be secured and made effective. The granting of land for the support of schools was not a new notion with the colonists. It has always been the most accessible means of encouraging education. The famous monasteries that for so long a time influenced European countries sprang from grants of land and the fruits of its cultivation. Fulda, the parent of many monasteries, began on the banks of the Fulda with a grant of a site and four miles of surrounding demesne obtained from Carloman.* Fritislar and Utrecht had already been established in a similar manner through the benevolence of St. Boniface. In the same spirit grants of land were made by the colonies or by companies representing mother countries, by towns or sub-colonies, by associations representing organized church or philanthropic effort, and by individuals.

When Philemon Purmont was asked by the General Court of Massachusetts, April 13, 1635, to become schoolmaster, certain islands at "Muddy River" in the Boston Harbor were set aside for the purpose of school support.† In 1641, after the school had been in operation for almost five years, Deer Island, one of these, was set apart by the town for a free school, the income of which, in 1664, was seven pounds. By 1647 the rental had increased to fourteen pounds. Two years later, five hundred acres of land at Braintree belonging to the town were leased for an annual rental of forty shillings. During the same year, Long and Spectacle Island were set aside for school purposes.‡

The policy of the General Court to grant land for the "encourage-

*Drane, Christian Schools and Scholars, Reprint of the Second Edition, p. 105; see also Fulda in Encyclopaedia Brittanica.

†Education: 1:499.

‡Brown, The Making of Our Middle Schools, p. 36.

ment'' of learning became general throughout the Colony. The Court in session on November 12, 1659, granted two hundred acres to each of two school masters as an expression of appreciation of their services, and one thousand acres to each of the towns of Dorchester, Charleston, and Cambridge for grammar schools. Dorchester had formerly received the rent of Thompson's Island for the schoolmaster. Thirteen years later a grant of six hundred acres was made to each county town. In 1651 Ipswich received a grant of land for a grammar school which was very much needed, since previous attempts to maintain a school had not succeeded.* From this time it flourished, partly because of increased support; largely perhaps because Ezekiel Cheever was the schoolmaster.

In Connecticut, the grants of land played a less important part in the maintenance of schools, however even here it was an important element in school support. The General Court in 1672 granted six hundred acres of land to each of four county towns for the benefit of schools, † and in 1733 certain lands in Litchfield county were set aside for the support of schools. Connecticut believed in granting land for school purposes but took the attitude that it was the business of towns and families to provide for the expenses. This accords with the notion presented above that the colonies purposed to guide rather than support. The stringent orders of the Court in 1642, 1650, 1655, and other years, support this position. ‡

''In 1619 - - - - Sir Edwin Sandys, president of the Virginia Company in Old England, moved the grant of ten thousand acres of land for the establishment of a university at Henrico.'' § The grant which included one thousand acres of land for an Indian college was made. The other nine thousand was to be used for the training of the English. Old England sent tenants and equipment for the occupancy of the university lands, but all efforts were discontinued at the time of the trouble with the Indians in 1622. ‖ About the only use made of appropriated lands was that of one thousand acres for the preparatory school at Charles City. In 1624, an is-

*Small, Walter H. in the School Review, Vol. 10: p. 517.
†U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1893, No. 2, p. 27.
‡Ibid, pp. 17, 30, 31.
§Ibid, 1887, No. 1, p. 11.
‖Ibid.

land in the Susquehanna, secluded from the free view of ravaging Indians, was granted for the founding of a university, but this came to naught like the project of 1619 in Henrico. The Colonial Assembly undertook the project of founding educational institutions for the purpose of fitting youth for "ye university" as early as 1660, by voting that "there be land taken upon purchases for a college and free schools* and that other provisions be made; however, not until 1719, when conditions were more promising for a college, did Rev. James Blair with others succeed in interesting King William and Queen Mary in the education of the children of the colony. They granted to the colony for educational purposes twenty thousand acres of land for a college besides making certain other specific appropriations. These lands were settled up through the Collegiate Land Office, which gave lasting influence to matters of education.†

Rhode Island, whose educational and religious history is so fascinating, made slow growth in her schools. The religious freedom granted there was not advantageous to education as it might appear from a modern viewpoint. In Massachusetts where the Puritan maintained close union of Church and State, the school was the handmaiden of religion. A heterogeneous group of settlers migrated to Rhode Island on account of the freedom of religious thought permitted there. In Massachusetts, the State in a sense trained the preachers; in Rhode Island, because of the separation of Church and State, the preachers were left without training.‡ Even though Rhode Island was backward in her educational development and in the establishment of a system of education, yet as early as 1640 the Colony voted one hundred acres of land for a school in Newport, "for the encouragement of the poorer sort, to train up their youth in learning". A similar provision was made for Providence in 1663, when the assembly of proprietors agreed to set aside one hundred acres of upland and other small lands for the maintenance of school.§

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*The College of William and Mary, U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1887, No. 1, p. 12.

†Ibid.

‡U. S. Bureau of Education, Circ. of Inf., 1894, No. 1, p. 23.

§Ibid, p. 25.

Vermont, though presenting no strikingly new features, provided, in all charters of towns, for the reservation of a quantity of land solely for the support of the schools. Her assistance to the college established by act of 1791 was initiated largely, it seems, through the generosity of General Ira Allen who granted lands upon specific conditions.*

This small list of grants is not inclusive of all colonial efforts made for education. Lands were granted to towns for development which indirectly found a place in the support of schools. Since most of the responsibility for education rested with individuals and the towns, the development of schools rests largely with them. Similar portions of land were set aside by individuals for the support of schools among the colonies.

As early as 1634 or 1635, Benjamin Syms, by will, left two hundred acres of land, together with a herd of milch cows, for the founding of a free school in Elizabeth County, Virginia, and, in 1646, or before, Thomas Eaton gave two hundred fifty acres of land in the same region, which later was consolidated with the Syms endowment and devoted to the Hampton High School. In 1668, Henry King gave one hundred acres of land for a free school in the Isle of Wight County, Virginia, and, in 1675, Henry Peasley gave six hundred acres for a free school in Gloucester County, Virginia.†

In Connecticut, William Gibbins gave thirty acres of meadow and upland for a Latin school in Hartford in 1655:‡ and in 1754 there was recorded the grant of a house and two acres of land by Joshua Moor for the school in Lebanon, Connecticut. In New Hampshire, Sam Sewall, original purchaser of the Pettaquanscott, had given 500 acres in what is now Exter to maintain a grammar school for children of inhabitants living upon that purchase, although provisions for carrying out the project were not made until 1766.

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*Extracts from Rev. W. Winterbotham's View of the United States of America. Am. J. Educ. 24, p. 137.

†Brown, The Making of our Middle Schools. p. 49.

‡Letter to Mr. Barnard. Am. J. Educ., Vol. 22, p. 370; also, U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1893, No. 2, p. 27.

Appropriations and Endowments

By the colonies:—Schools in the colonies were supported in many and varied ways, due to the conditions of life of these early times. Their efforts were co-operative in a striking way,—an example of which is presented in the action of the Connecticut Colony, as early as 1644, when it was voted to assess the families of the colony one peck of wheat, or its equivalent in value, for the support of poor students in Harvard College.* The sums were necessarily small and, when we read of the record of the Massachusetts Assembly directed by Sir Henry Vane, Governor of the Colony, concerning the grant of four hundred pounds for Harvard College in 1642, we are struck with the munificence of the gift.†

The activity in the Massachusetts jurisdiction toward the support of schools commands our admiration, and most of the colonies are no less worthy. In Virginia, two thousand pounds were provided by Royal Endowment in 1691 from the quit-rents for schools support, and in 1693, the House of Burgesses made a permanent levy, or tax, upon skins, furs, and so forth, sent out of Virginia. In 1781 an appropriation of one thousand pounds for the education of ingenious scholars who were natives of the Colony was made. These, with other provisions by tax, show the attitude of the Virginia Colony and the Mother Country toward education. To these may be added the scholarships founded by the House of Burgesses which yielded pecuniary assistance to worthy students at William and Mary.‡

In Connecticut, strenuous attempts were made to promote education. This was done through the orders of the General Court. Fines were imposed for not maintaining schools for a minimum period. County courts were urged to increase their revenues in order to establish schools, on the one hand, and to raise the standard, on the other. They provided further for an annual tax of forty shillings "for every thousand pounds in their respective county lists, and proportionally for lesser sums, toward the maintenance of the

*U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1891, No. 6, p. 48; Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1892-1893, Vol. II, p. 1243.

†U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1891, No. 6, p. 22.

‡U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1887, No. 1, pp. 15, 16.

schoolmaster in the town where the same is levied.''* In the Connecticut Code of 1650, a fine of twenty shillings was provided for those who neglected the education of their children to the extent that the children failed to learn the English tongue and to have knowledge of the capital laws.† ''The first move toward establishing anything higher than the free school in New Haven was in 1659, when forty pounds a year was voted for a colony grammar school, - - - - and eight pounds more for procuring books. - - ''‡ About a year later, their appropriation was raised to one hundred forty pounds. In 1687 the surplus in the county treasuries was divided among the grammar schools. In 1693 the Colony appropriated twenty pounds each to Fairfield and New London,—Hartford and New Haven having already received appropriations of thirty pounds each.§ For nine years, houses and lands used for school purposes had been free from taxes by colonial act. The close alliance with the religious societies in the promotion of education is illustrated in the order of 1741 to distribute the bonds and moneys received from the sale of the town in western Connecticut to the several ecclesiastical societies in trust, for the use of their schools.‖

The interest of the Colony is expressed from time to time through the action of the Assembly as indicated in the town records. For example, a committee is appointed ''to take charge of lands given for a school at Middletown'', and lands ''escheated to the State'' are given to Wintonbury for a school; and schoolmasters are exempted from military service. In 1766 the proceeds collected from arrearage taxes on liquors, teas, and so forth, were given to the schools.††

Though Rhode Island had not committed herself to public-supported education, yet she had encouraged education in many ways. It seems, however, from what evidence we have that Rhode Island was interested in assisting families in their struggles to educate their

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*Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1892-3, Vol. II, p. 1247, complete copy of the act.

†U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1893, No. 2, p. 17.

‡Ibid, p. 28.

§Ibid, p. 28.

‖Ibid, p. 31.

††Ibid.

children rather than in providing public schools for them. In other words, Rhode Island believed in family responsibility for elementary education and assisted such pupils as were eager for advanced education. "In 1696 a tract of land in the town of Kingston was conveyed to Harvard College for - - - the support and education at the said college of those youths whose parents were not of sufficient ability to maintain them."*

During the year 1768, an attempt was made to establish in Providence a system of free public schools for which teachers were to be supplied, evidently, by some sort of tax or assessment, but the proposition was defeated. According to a note from Moses Brown accompaning the report of the committee, the proposition was lost by the vote of the poorer people who failed to see their own interests.† Seventeen years later, Rhode Island provided for free schools out of the town treasury, but the system was opposed by wealthy men who maintained that education at public expense was unjust, and the act repealed in 1803 in a storm of opposition.‡ Nothing was accomplished by legislation for a system of schools until 1823, when a bill for a system of public schools passed almost unanimously.

In 1681 William Penn received a magnificent grant of land from Charles II out of which was to come the support and encouragement of public schools. In 1683, the legislature passed an act forcing parents and guardians to have their children educated.§ This act which put this government upon advanced grounds in the matter of promoting public education accorded with the scheme of William Penn. It was at this time that New Hampshire and Massachusetts were being separated after twenty-eight years of blending. Though the order of the General Court of Massachusetts applied to the territory of New Hampshire, yet we cannot help noting that New Hampshire did not hold tenaciously to the Puritanic idea of Massachusetts. By the order of the Court of 1647, New Hampshire provided for schoolmasters largely by way of supplying their needs.

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*U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1894, No. 1, p. 20.

†Ibid, p. 26.

‡Ibid, p. 27.

§Clews, Elsie W., Educational Legislation and Administration; Colunial Governments, p. 278.

As early as 1640, the Queen of Sweden gave Henry Hockhaumer and company a grant and privilege for the establishment of a new colony in New Sweden (Delaware), with provision for a schoolmaster and minister, and by 1699 Swen Colsberg was located at Christiana as master. This attitude toward education in the new colony may be due to the notion of the state education already developed in Sweden. Even before the grant of 1640 by Sweden, the Dutch, through the West India Company, had done considerable for schools. Section twenty-eight of the Charter, 1630-35, says that "the Patroons shall also particularly exert themselves to find speedy means to maintain the Clergyman and Schoolmaster - - ;" and, in 1638, provision was made for tax. Five years before in Manhattan, the Dutch provided a school at public expense. The West India Company sent over schoolmasters and often paid the salary, Dr. Alexander Carolus Curtius being one such schoolmaster who received for his services in 1659 as Latin master five hundred guilders.* The activity of the Dutch in behalf of education appeared from time to time in the colonies, even after they had lost their possessions, for schools seen to have been general in the villages and towns under Dutch control, due to the generosity of the Mother Country which sent out such teachers as Evert Pietersen and Arent Everson Malenaer, who are reported to have been paid liberally for their services.†

Maine presents the same general story of colonial interest in education, since prior to 1820 she was a part of Massachusetts. Becoming settled at a later time, owing to the condition of the country, she did not follow out the orders of the General Court of Massachusetts. What was done in Maine was done through the initiative of towns and villages for the most part; however, in 1789 provision was made for school districts through which, by act of 1800, taxes might be levied for schoolhouses and other school purposes.‡ In New York, the notion of taxation also gained a place in their thought, for by act of 1702 they voted an annual tax of fifty pounds for a period of seven years for a grammar schoolmaster in the city of New York, though the tax was likely an assessment similar to the

*A Dutch silver coin worth about forty cents.

†U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1893, No. 3.

‡Ibid, 1903, No. 3.

assessment made for the support of the minister. Thirty years later, the provincial legislature imposed a license tax upon peddlers, hawkers, and so forth, this tax to the amount of forty pounds to be set aside for a schoolmaster; and it renewed the tax of 1702 upon condition that twenty youths be taught gratis. This shows that a free school in the modern sense was not yet in operation.*

In the South Atlantic colonies, we have noted the disposition of parents and guardians to send their children to England for their education. This delayed colonial movements in behalf of education. South Carolina provided for a school at Charleston, supported from the public treasury, which was free to twelve scholars, to others at a cost of four pounds per year. Other schools were subsidized, but on the whole conditions were unfavorable for education. The churches made definite and hard struggles for the education of the people, the Colony giving assistance where it could, the greater part of which being verbal encouragement. In Georgia, the progress of education rested with the churches rather than with the Colony.†

One other colony demands our attention, since social and economic conditions there give a peculiar development to education. The struggles between Catholics and Protestants in Maryland prevented most of the constructive work proposed from coming to fruition. The message of Governor Nicholson in 1694, sparkling with enthusiasm for schools, was reinforced by his private subscription of fifty pounds for a building and twenty-five for maintenance, by the further subscription of five thousand pounds of tobacco for the building, and two thousand for maintenance by Sir Thomas Laurence, and by varying amounts contributed by the council. The Assembly received the message with appreciation and raised by subscription forty-five thousand pounds of tobacco. Further, the assembly imposed taxes upon liquors, furs, beef, bacon, and so forth, for educational purposes, and made appeal to mother countries through the royal house and the church for the erection of schools. The legislature during the years that followed sought to tax whatever industry existed that was at all a product of com-

*Brown, The Making of our Middle tates, pp. 93, 94.
†Ibid, pp. 96, 97.

merce. An act passed in 1717 imposing a tax of twenty shillings per poll upon negroes imported, another in 1720 imposing taxes upon tobacco, still other acts imposing taxes upon pork and other commodities, were passed with the hope of securing funds for a school in each county.

In 1723 governing bodies were appointed for each county which were to provide one hundred acres of land for the schoolmasters' use and, in order to secure good masters, were to allow him twenty pounds per year in addition to the land provided.* In the proposal for a college at Annapolis, the expenses of which were estimated at eight hundred sixty pounds, the list of items for meeting the support comprised moneys from licenses, bachelors, tributes, donations, and profits from boys. This scheme was lost in the trouble between the upper and lower houses. This was unfortunate, for Maryland needed a college in which to train schoolmasters, as is evidenced in the caution given in the act of 1723.† "The year 1785 saw the establishment of St. John's College at Annapolis and its union with Washington College under the name of the University of Maryland. A donation of 1750 pounds to the former and 1250 pounds to the latter was pledged to be annually and forever thereafter given and granted. These sums were derived from the fees on marriage licenses (a reversal of the proposal of 1764 to tax bachelors), ordinary licenses, hawkers' licenses, and fines and forfeitures."‡ With 1798 came the act of state aid by donations to the several academies, which is sufficiently suggestive in the light of modern school support to warrant mentioning.§

By the towns:—A close dependence characterized the towns and the colonies, especially during the earliest times. It was most often the case that colonial legislation applied to a single town. Even in certain colonies, the development of a single town was a difficult undertaking.§ Thus it happens that the appropriations made by

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*U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1894, No. 2.

†Mr. Sollers reports that in Talbott County the master of the school, an Irishman, evidently having but the crudest education, ran away taking a negro man and two geldings with him. A reward of five pounds was made for their apprehension. U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1894, No. 2, p. 33.

‡Ibid, p. 43.

§Note conditions in Maryland. Ibid, p. 14.

a colony, of lands, moneys, or taxes go directly to some specified town. The records show that colonial acts provided for specificed towns generally. In the establishment of the Boston Latin School over which Mr. Purmont was to preside it is difficult to distinguish between colonial and town authority. * This is easily explained in the light of social and economic conditions on the one hand and religious conditions on the other. Deer Island, though granted by the Colony for school purposes, was set aside by the town of Boston, as were Long and Spectacle islands, and the garden plat for Daniel Maud. As income from Deer Island, the town received seven pounds annually for three years, then fourteen pounds, which went to the support of the school.

These arrangements for school support in Massachusetts were made by the Selectmen for the most part, they being the representatives of the people. In Connecticut as early as 1639 there was a grammar school in Hartford and, in 1642, the voters of Hartford are reported as having appropriated thirty pounds a year to the town school, and, six years later, as having ordered a schoolhouse built. It is probable that the thirty pounds were to be raised by rate as was customary, since we find that in 1843, Hartford agreed to support such pupils as could not pay twenty shillings per year or six pence per week. † The fifty pounds granted Boston in 1650 for the support of the schoolmaster was to be secured by rate,‡ so that the responsibility continued to rest upon parents and guardians. It was during this same time that the General Court of Connecticut ordered vigilance over the brethren and required towns to keep a teacher of reading and writing whose support was provided for by the parents. In 1652 Mr. Janes was encouraged to begin school at New Haven, with the grant of ten pounds from the town treasury, the rest of his salary to be taken of the parents of the children so that he might have a comfortable maintenance.§

The attempt on the part of New Haven to found a college illustrates very well the early methods of the town. In 1655 the Governor reported to the General Court that New Haven had raised

*Education, 1: 499ff.

†Am. J. Educ., Vol. 28, p. 185.

‡U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1893, No. 2, p. 16.

§Report of U. S. Com. of Educ., 1892-93, Vol. II, p. 1243.

three hundred pounds and inquired what the other towns would do. It is evident that the sum was raised wholly by subscription, though the matter was disposed of finally by a grant of sixty pounds out of the town treasury.*

The proposal for the college came to naught at this time, but, in 1663, a new school was founded at New Haven. The master received twenty pounds out of the town treasury, the rest of his salary being met on agreement by the parents.† During the years from 1635 to 1670, the schools of Boston had made consistent progress in education and were firmly established. On the latter date we find Boston supporting two masters and providing definitely and well for their support. Mr. Ezekiel Cheever, whose efforts for education are universally appreciated, received sixty pounds a year for his services out of the town rates and rents, besides the use of the schoolhouse. At this time, his assistant was Hezekiah Usher.‡ It is of course likely that Mr. Cheever here as elsewhere was under necessity of collecting rates from parents for himself. The fines which were imposed in the colonies of Massachusetts and Connecticut became an indirect means of promoting schools.

With the closing of the seventeenth century and the beginning of the eighteenth, we have a livelier interest in education and more of a town spirit in its behalf. New towns had arisen with more or less loyalty to educational interests. New London, Connecticut, voted to build a schoolhouse out of the allowance of the Bartlet estate, parents assisting in meeting any deficiency. Hartford in 1674 was granting sixty pounds for a master, though she paid only thirty at a little earlier time. New Haven in 1728 settled the oyster shell field on the school to aid scholars of Congregational parentage.

The tardy development of towns in many of the colonies explains the slowness in educational development. Social and economic conditions, as pointed out above, made public education a secondary matter in these instances however much the colonists themselves might have desired public schools. In Maryland, there was a lack of homogeneity among the settlers and, further, both gentlemen of

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*U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1893, No. 2, p. 26.

†Am. J. Educ., Vol. 27, p. 290.

‡Ibid, Vol. 12, p. 538.

wealth and well-to-do-planters had become accustomed to send their children abroad for education. Those of moderate means owing to distance and dependence could not provide schools. "The idea that the more wealthy should contribute to the education of the poor except by voluntary charity did not belong to the eighteenth century here or elsewhere; nor was the duty of such charity to the poor based upon any other considerations in general than enabling them to read the gospel, rescuing them from vice and immorality, and saving their souls."* In 1782 we read of a free school in Kent county, Washington College, to the funds of which were added the proceeds of lands of the Talbot Free School. Even school funds, as in Dorchester county, were devoted to the relief of the poor. Though we have a goodly number of records of the activity of towns, yet it is clear that the efforts of towns and colonies are largely the efforts of individuals. These we have yet to consider.

By individuals:—Before considering the methods of donation and gift, we must give consideration to the efforts made by religious organizations for the support of schools. Since subscriptions under the auspices of a religious organization are individual, we need only to call attention to some of the methods used by these organizations in securing funds. Nearly all of the academies of Rhode Island seem to be controlled or influenced by denominations. In the early history of Connecticut we read how the new society for the Propagation of the Gospel was setting up schools. The early grammar school in Philadelphia, 1689, was established by the Friends under the direction of William Penn. The ideals of college and academy were those of public service. The provision of schools and the obligation to establish and maintain them rested upon a religious purpose. Besides the private subscription, the public collection was a common means of supporting schools. In 1733 and 1763, we have records of such collections in Connecticut and it is likely that there were many of these owing to the pressing needs. Both of these collections were for Indian education. For the support of the minister and the master, provision was made through obligatory subscription. Palfrey† in writing concerning Connecticut says, "No church could be founded without permission from the

*U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1894, No. 2, p. 43.
†Palfrey, New England, Vol. IV, p. 231.

General Court, and every citizen was obliged to pay in proportion to his means toward the support of the minister of the geographical parish of his residence."

Mr. Sollers says* that in Maryland, during the last of the seventeenth century, great efforts were made to secure contributions for the free schools, and further that an agent was appointed to solicit subscriptions in England among merchantmen and officers. Often the appeal to the mother country for aid was made directly through the church in America.†

Benevolent societies were always engaged in providing for the education of the poor. In Virginia, the alliance of church and colony was so close that the identity of each in educational affairs is not always clear. In 1619, the year of the proposed grant of the Virginia Company in Old England of ten thousand acres of land, "the bishops of England, at the suggestion of the King, raised the sum of fifteen hundred pounds for the encouragement of Indian education:"‡ and when the Colony took upon itself in 1660 the responsibility of founding educational institutions, orders were sent to the vestrymen of all the parishes to raise funds for such purpose.§ Funds for a college in Rhode Island to the amount of four thousand dollars were raised at home and abroad by Rev. Morgan Edwards, upon condition that they be put at interest. The Friends' school in Portsmouth which closed in 1788 for lack of funds was revived in 1814 by the munificence of wealthy members. Mr. Powell‖ gives a brief account of the efforts of religious sects in prosecuting educational plans in his Education in Delaware.

But with all the organization thus far effected, the voluntary gift of the parents, guardians, and friends of the children and youth furnish the main portion of school funds. It will be our purpose to present a few cases to show the interest which individuals took in education, together with the apparent sacrifice incident to the contributions. We have already mentioned how the Selectmen of Boston raised money by subscription to prosecute the school work there. The spirit of the giving was such as characterized the Puri-

*U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1894, No. 2, p. 23.
†Ibid.
‡Ibid, 1887, No. 1, p. 11.
§Ibid, p. 12. ††Ibid, 1893, No. 3, p. 34 ff.

tan fathers before them. When we read of gifts of pieces of cloth, plates, or treasured heirlooms, their earnestness for education can hardly be overlooked. At Ipswich, where attempts were being made in 1657 to establish a school, Robert Payne is said to have purchased two acres of land for a school and the following year to have built an edifice thereon at his own cost. Then William Hubbard gave an acre next the schoolmaster's house. Teachers were supported in a sense by barter. The revenue for the Ipswich school during this first period consisted of fourteen pounds from Chebacco, the school farm, granted by the town; seven pounds from a little island at the mouth of the Chebacco river, granted by William Payne; and twenty-eight pounds from three acres of orchard given by Robert Payne and William Hubbard. In 1648 Robert Payne was one of a hundred fifty-five subscribers to a fund for the school. This indicated the method used at Ipswich, which was no doubt general.*

Reference to school farm, orchard, and so forth, suggests the notion that schools in their origin were industrial. In most early records, appropriations of moneys or grants of land were made for the "encouragement" of learning. School education involved a sort of apprenticeship, in many cases it consisted in that alone, even in learning to teach school or to serve in a parish. To the development of the school farms and their equipment we have made repeated reference. The free school in Newport parish in the Isle of Wight County, Virginia, was the recipient of four cows by the will of Captain John Moon, 1655; and twenty years before, Benjamin Syms, in addition to land, had left by will eight milch cows for support of a free school in Elizabeth County, Virginia; in 1675 Henry Peasley gave ten cows and a mare for Gloucester school. These gifts of equipment were supplemented by many others of similar kind, so that land, stock, machinery, and even slaves were at the disposal of masters or managers. Not only were the youth and masters encouraged by this equipment, but as in Virginia, scholarships were founded by colonies and private parties for the support of worthy students.†

*Am. J. Educ., Vol. 28, pp. 135, 136.

†Note the scholarships founded in Virginia. U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1887, No. 1, p. 16; also the provision of raising a peck of wheat per family in Connecticut for poor students in Harvard.

It has been previously hinted that lands and equipment alone are not sufficient to insure educational progress. Though ten thousand acres of land were granted for the establishment of a college at Henrico by the Virginia Company in Old England, yet the only fruitage secured at the time was the promotion of a preparatory school at Charleston and this was begun in 1621 through the gifts of money to the amount of one hundred fifty pounds.* Multiplied examples appear where colonial and legislative acts provide for grants, privileges, and immunities but these became, as suggested, "encouragement" merely unless reinforced by liberal gifts of what is essentially working capital. The interim often appearing between the time of legislative acts and their actual operation is essential usually to the development of a sentiment of personal obligation in private benefaction. The growth and development of schools in pioneer lands are essentially of this type. Therefore when the wealthy gentlemen of Virginia and their merchant friends in England in 1688 and 1689 raised twenty-five hundred pounds toward higher education, a real beginning was made which resulted in the promulgation of a wholesome sentiment throughout the Colony and the Mother Country. This subscription, added to the actual available funds, resulted in the founding of William and Mary College, chartered in 1693. The importance of these voluntary gifts can hardly be over emphasized in the light of colonial school progress.

In Maryland little if any progress was made until Governor Nicholson, 1694, in addition to urging in his message legislation in behalf of school support, obligated himself to the amount of fifty pounds toward the building of a school and twenty-five toward its maintenance. The appreciation of these two kinds of funds was as essential then as now. This gift supplemented by other private gifts of tobacco and money called out favorable Assembly action and further contributions to the amount of forty-five thousand pounds of tobacco. These funds again supplemented by further contributions throughout the Colony and Europe through the agency of religious societies, private initiative, and the imposition of taxes, became very fruitful. Like experiences of sacrifice and effort are

*U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1887, No. 1, p. 11.

recorded in other colonies, and with the rise of academies, private munificence is illustrated everywhere.

Lottery.

The popularity of the lottery in the United States by the middle of the eighteenth century, justifies our giving it special mention here. The notion came to this country as did most of our ideas. The sanction of the lottery by Queen Elizabeth no doubt was a partial explanation of its beginning in the United States. In 1612, we read of a lottery for the benefit of the Colony of Virginia. By the middle of the eighteenth century, schools and even churches were built by lotteries. In 1750 a lottery was organized to raise an edifice at Yale, and in 1772, and again in 1806, Harvard raised funds in this manner. This method seemed to be the method most easily used to secure results, the French people claiming as an argument for its operation there that it keeps money at home that would go for gambling in other countries because of the inborn spirit of gambling among the people. From 1816 to 1828 the French government is reported * to have derived $2,400,000 of annual income from lotteries. With the colonists it seemed more as an expedient measure, though the spirit of gambling no doubt made this method popular. In 1760 Rhode Island raised $1,200 for a library, in the process of which the lottery was a favorite method. The following instance is cited† which illustrates the use of the method in this colony. In Maryland, the rise of the lottery was wide-spread and gained a fair reputation. Literature was encouraged by lotteries

*See under Lottery in the Americana.

†Scheme of a lottery granted by the general assembly of the colony of Rhode Island, &c, for raising of £130 lawful money, to be applied toward furnishing the parsonage house belonging to the Baptist church in Warren and rendering it commodious for the reception of the pupils who are or who shall be placed there for a liberal education. It is hoped that the extraordinary expense of that infant society in building a new meetinghouse and parsonage house, as far as the building is advanced, together with the immediate necessity of room for the pupils under the care of the Rev. Mr. Manning, and the great encouragement for the adventurers, there being but little better than two blanks to a prize, will induce those who wish well to the design speedily to purchase the tickets. U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1894, No. 1, pp. 20, 21.

of great proportions.* According to Randall† New York passed an act in 1801 by which $100,000 was directed to be raised by lottery, part of which went to the support of academies, but the bulk, to common schools. These lotteries, he says, were not discontinued until 1821, when all lotteries were prohibited.

It is somewhat surprising to us that many of the original colleges of America, leading churches of the colonies, and benevolent societies, and even the Government, resorted to this means of raising money. Columbia, Harvard, and others received funds in this way.‡

TAXATION AND TUITION.

In a discussion of the beginnings of taxation in the colonies an insurmountable difficulty presents itself. It is often impossible to distinguish between the taxation of wealth and the assessment of rate. The latter method of course takes precedence over the former chronologically. Since education was a matter of domestic concern those responsible for the care of children assumed the responsibility of their education.

Voluntary rates provided the funds for many schools and with town or colonial regulation the rates were assessed by the town or provision was made for their adjustment with the master.§ Exceptions to the obligation were often made where parents or guardians were not able to pay. Definite tuitions were fixed with the better administration of schools. In 1643 Mr. Andrews in Hartford was promised sixteen pounds for his 'paynes' in teaching the children, of which parents were to pay twenty shillings per

*U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1894, No. 2, p. 56. In the the same year (1816) an act for the encouragement of literature provides that $50.000 a year for five successive years shall be raised by lottery for the increase of the school fund.

†Randall, History of the Common School System of the State of New York, quoted in U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1894, No. 2, p. 56.

‡U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1894, No. 2, p. 53, and report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1894-1895, Vol. II, pp. 1506-1509, for further accounts of the use of the lottery.

§Educ., Vol. 1, p. 499. Town provides that grant to masters be raised by rate, Am. J. Educ., Vol. XII, p. 533 ff. Note Mr. Cheever's desire to get money from the estate of Mr. Trobridge, which he claimed due on rate, p. 535.

year, or under certain conditions six pence per week, provided however that those not able to pay be taught gratis.* The Connecticut Code of 1650 provided that townships having fifty householders must provide a teacher of reading and writing supported by the parents; and in 1657, in order to assist in the setting up of schools, presumably where there is less than fifty householders, the town was to pay one-third from the treasury and the parents two-thirds by tuition fees.†

In Bristol, Rhode Island, rates and tuition furnished the wages of the schoolmaster to the amount of twenty-four pounds per year, paid to the master. Additional funds were secured by licenses for entertainment and wood money, both kinds of which furnish an appreciable portion of school funds at this time.‡ At Bristol, Massachusetts, scholars in 1699 paid four pence per week for Latin; at Plymouth, three for Latin; and a few years later, Plymouth asked four for Latin of pupils within a mile, beyond two miles, nothing. Tuition remained a substantial part of school support even after town rates were made, and they have continued in all systems of schools to the present, especially in higher institutions and for pupils in elementary or secondary public schools, coming from outside the school units.

The levy of town rates grew out of the notion of English town rates, as far as method was concerned, its necessity resulting from the inequalities of ability among parents and guardians in paying the tutors or in subscribing to the local fund. In this latter motive we find some explanation of the fact that the earliest schools supported by tax on wealth were recognized as "charity" schools. Essentially, there was truth in the statement in practice. Since the town rate was assessed for the most part in town meetings it is a sort of self-assessment. Why the poor people of Providence, Rhode Island, as late as 1767, rejected the proposition for free schools is hard to understand since all were to have equal school privileges and funds were to be raised by the towns.

It has been shown that the towns assumed the responsibility of providing directly for schools as necessity arose. The inequalities

*Am. J. Educ., Vol. 28, p. 185.
†U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1893, No. 2, p. 18.
‡Ibid, 1894, No. 1, p. 21.

which arose as the result of voluntary initiative could be met only by a larger unit of authority. Here the town and colony became obligated, and taxation was the most available method, either direct or indirect. With few exceptions, schools were not supported by tax prior to the eighteenth century. The most notable exceptions were the schools of emigrants to New Netherlands where provision for schools was made by tax upon householder and inhabitant to the amount thought sufficient.* In Virginia and Maryland in 1691, a tax of one penny per pound was imposed upon tobacco sent out by royal authority; in 1734, a tax on liquor was ordered by the House of Burgesses of Virginia; and, in 1759, a tax was imposed upon peddlers. At the time of the founding of William and Mary College, specific laws were made by Maryland for the support of schools. A tax of four pence per gallon on imported liquors was used for schools and other objects of public concern. In 1704, to assist further the cause of education in the Province, and export duty of from nine pence to three farthings per skin was placed upon bears, beavers, and such (like) animals, also other additional export duties; further, a tax of twenty shillings upon negroes imported; and then an export duty of three pence per hogshead in 1720 on tobacco, three half pence of this tax to be used for public schools. These laws indicate a tendency in the direction of securing support funds through the activity of capital or its income. It was a definite step toward taxing wealth for the support of schools for the poor, provided in the act of 1813.†

In New Hampshire, by act of 1693, the Selectmen in their respective towns were required to assess inhabitants for building and repairing school houses, the support of schoolmaster being provided by subscription and tuition. Not until 1789 do we read of any legislative attempt to establish the amount of money to be raised for school purposes. At this time the statute was made to read four pounds for every one pound of the proportion of public taxes to the individual town. In 1817, a law was passed by which, "The assessment for schools was increased to ninety dollars for every dollar of apportionment of public taxes, for the sole purpose

*U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1893, No. 3, p. 24.

†Ibid, 1894, No. 2, pp. 19ff; also see p. 55 for mention of the first direct tax for education in Maryland.

of supporting English schools within the towns for teaching 'reading, writing, grammar, arithmetic, geography, and other necessary branches of education', and the purchase of 'wood and fuel'."* In Connecticut as early as 1700, the inhabitants of the Colony were to pay annually forty shillings on every thousand pounds in their respective county lists toward the maintenance of schoolmasters, this amount to be distributed to the accredited schools.†

Not until 1789 was there a really tangible unit of school administration in Maine, and not till 1800 was there provision made for taxation for school purposes. At this time, school districts were permitted to tax themselves for school houses, clerks, and committees, the wages of schoolmasters still being provided for after the plan of Massachusetts of which she was still a part. With the eighteenth century and the organization of a state system the evolution of the method by taxation assumes a more important role.

IN PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

What has been written concerning the support of education, public, quasi-public. or semi-public, applies generally to education through private initiative. We have continued to emphasize the fact that education was a domestic duty. The so-called public school and the private school of colonial days were often identical in content and method, and frequently in scheme of support. Prior to the founding of schools by colonies or towns, the school of the private venturer was common. Occasionally we find mention of the presence of a venturer in towns where schools have been provided. A Mr. Jones seems to have had such a school in Boston, even though public education had been pretty well provided for. The magistrates of the town secured his promise to leave at the close of the winter term, 1656.‡ In Rhode Island, because of the general attitude toward public education, private venture schools flourished.§

*Am. J. Educ., Vol. 28, p. 354.

†Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1892-1893, Vol. 2, p. 1247; U. S. Bureau of Educ., Cir. of Inf., 1893, No. 2, p. 30, and above, p. 9.

‡Education, Vol. 1, pp. 499, 500.

§From Newport Mercury, April 14, 1766,—Thomas Greene in Barristers' row, hereby informs the public that he proposes to open a school the first

Newport had a private charity school established by Nathaniel Kay, where ten boys were taught grammar and mathematics gratis. The conditions among private schools, owing to competition and the attitude of the Colony toward public education, finally became the object of suspicion, and a committee appointed to investigate and to recommend a method of regulating these private schools reported in 1785 that the only method of correcting the evils of the private schools was the establishment of public schools. In 1795, this was done,* however, the provision for a system was withdrawn as noted before in 1803.

In Maryland, as has been seen, the use of private tutors was common, some of whom were owned as servants for advance of passage money, or other favor.† The academies of Maryland, which became the successors of the free schools, were established by private contributions. At Hagartown, stock to the amount of $6,000 at five dollars per share was raised for the academy. Among the academies, Phillips Academy, the first in Massachusetts, is typical. Here the four benefactors of promotion were: Samuel Philips, with a subscription of $6,000; John Philips, an uncle, $31,000; William Phillips, an uncle, $6,000; William Phillips, a cousin, $28,000; with $14,000 additional for a seminary;—in all $85,000. Such institutions, as this latter typifies, have prepared the way for the stream of voluntary offerings to education which we shall consider in other connections.

It is clear that school support in the colonies grew out of the needs of the times, and further, that the methods used were the most expedient. Grants of land and money were made by the colonies, mother countries, counties, towns, organized societies, and private individuals, in order that the ideals of their life, to serve

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Monday in May, to teach reading, writing, arithmetic, and merchants' accounts—the Italian method—and as he don't incline to undertake for more than twenty (besides a very few small readers), they that favor him scholars may depend on their being taught with the greatest alacrity. He has, as usual, an assortment of English goods, etc., at a reasonable rate.—U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1894, No. 1, p. 20. See same page for other advertisements.

*Ibid, No. 6, p. 27.

†Ibid, No. 1, p. 27.

God and man best, might be realized.

The expression of benefaction in appropriations, gifts, donations, bequests, characterizes the underlying purpose of true education. The scheme of lottery, self-assessment, levy, tuitions and fees, are characteristic of the growing complex of organized social life. All the methods operated at once as they cumulated from the experiences of this pioneer life. The essential elements persist in the growth of federal and state efforts in behalf of popular education.

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT
AND
EDUCATIONAL SUPPORT

"Religion, Morality and Knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged."—Ordinance of 1787.

INTRODUCTION.

The Federal Government has never been indifferent to education. The failure of the Government to make itself explicit in the constitution has not operated against the development of education in the nation. To say that the Government has no control over the system of education operating in the states, is to disregard the spirit of the constitution which says, "The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government".* It is quite true that the Government has exercised no direct control over education except in the District of Columbia; however, the sympathy and aid realized in the direction of spreading intelligence, though indirect for the most part, has been none the less effective. This attitude of the Government has been demonstrated clearly in colonial days, and it remains universally expressed in that attitude, since popular governments without popular education "have no right to existence and cannot be maintained when established".† The Government with a purpose born of democracy has committed to the states, respectively, the free assumption of the responsibility of educating their youth. However, the spirit of the constitution permits the Federal Government to exercise not only power of preventing ignorance, the most alarming impediment to popular government, but the power of directing and constructing education. The former power would seek to hold fast the standards of the people already obtained; the latter would tend to correlate, coordinate, guide, protect, and even support the multiple agencies of education. Both of these functions the Government has exercised; and with the increasing complexity and differentiation of life among the states, the latter function is assuming wider proportions and greater significance,—and this all without encroaching upon the spontaneity of state expression.

The purpose in this chapter is to review the aid given to education for the purpose of discovering how the several methods which operated among the colonies found a similar expression in the attitude of the Government with the close of the War of Independ-

*Article III, Section 4.

†Education, Vol. I, p. 420.

ence and the rise and development of the states. In general we shall find that the aid given by the Federal Government has been, as in the days of Purmont and Cheever, an "encouragement" for education,—or in other words, an inducement for individual and state spontaneity and development. The spirit has been that of emphasizing the importance of voluntary effort in a democracy. In this respect the attitude of the Government has remained unchanged, though this fact is not so simple at the present time. Thomas Jefferson illustrated rather clearly the idea of the Government that direct control, even in educational affairs, reverts to the Government when individuals and states, through their neglect, invite ignorance and disruption. At a time when education was considered a matter of domestic concern, he asked for a public school for Virginia where learning could be had gratis. Though Thomas Jefferson himself believed that parents should educate their children, yet when indigent parents did not educate them he contended that the responsibility reverted to the state.* This attitude of protector, guide, and assistant, displayed in that period of our history when a national spirit was becoming marked with greater virility, was fixed in the acts of 1802 and 1803.† The various and numerous acts of Congress relating to Government interest in education and to the general development of the states, though peculiar to our situation as a nation, have tended to define our educational policy and the methods of financial support in a manner similar to the growth and development in other nations.

It is clear therefore that the crystallization of the sentiment prevailing in the United States in behalf of general education has been a gradual process. Hardly a session of Congress has convened in which some demand for a congressional act in behalf of education has not been made. Rather consistent criticism has attended Congress for its seemingly ultraconservative policy toward educational

*"But the indigence of the greater number disabling them from educating at their own expense, those of their children whom nature hath fitly formed and disposed to become useful instruments of the public, it is better that such should be sought for and educated at the common expense of all, than that the happiness of all should be confided to the weak or wicked."—Extract from Section 1, of a bill for the more general diffusion of knowledge, Am. J. of Educ., Vol. 17, p. 95.

†Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1880, p. XXX.

procedure and development; however, a review of the past history of the difficulties encountered in adjusting the variety of demands abates our hasty criticism. Progress is slow if continuous and permanent, steady if directed intelligently and effectively. Congress could do no better than to follow the zigzag path made by the colonies and to utilize the suggestions which this experience called out. The efforts made in the colonies through grants of land, through the benevolence of private endeavor and religious propagation, became for the most part the methods of the Government when a real national spirit issued as a result of the co-operation in the struggle against England for freedom and independence. Federal aid therefore began in the granting of land for educational purposes.

SUPPORT BY LAND GRANTS.

Common Schools:—The English land policy influenced our national spirit in a peculiar way, with the issue of the war. Doctor Samuel Johnson, President of King's College (now Columbia University), is reported to have written to Archbishop Secker, April 10, 1762,* in behalf of a policy of granting land for religion and schools. Such efforts from private and philanthropic sources prepared the way for the policy of the Gevernment. In 1784 one year before the first act of Congress granting land for the common schools, Georgia enacted a measure providing for the setting apart of twenty thousand acres of land for a collegiate seminary of learning.† These activities can be explained largely by the fact that the presence of a schoolmaster with "every immigrant ship" had brought the notion of popular education to a practical realization. Fierce opposition sems to have arisen when the ordinance of 1785 was proposed and passed. The people of the colonies, though needing no further education in the principle that a democracy can

*"I beg leave, my Lord, to observe that it is a great pity when patents are granted, as they often are, for large tracts of land, no provision is made for religion and schools. I wish, therefore, instructions were given to our governors never to grant patents for townships or villages or large manors without requiring the patentees to sequester a competent portion for the support of religion and schools." Am. J. of Educ., Vol. 17, p. 65.

†Ibid, Vol. 17, pp. 65, 66.

exist only through the intelligence of its constituents, still considered education a private or state matter.

The passage of the act of May 20, 1785, its preliminary forms, and its subsequent operations are full of interest; first, because there was in those movements an evident lack of even a crude policy as to the disposition of western lands though Congress was forced by the responsibilities impending to manifest a constructive interest; second, because of a lack of definition in the minds of the members of Congress as to the field of religion, on the one hand, and the field of education, on the other, since through the process of social differentiation, the distinctness of each was becoming apparent; and third, with others of more or less importance, because of the lack of a definite policy toward educational support, since there was a wide difference of opinion as to the need of support beyond that which was secured through voluntary effort.

The history of the legislation which took the form finally of the ordinance known in education as the "Sixteenth Section Grant", illustrates the first two lacks. Jefferson, chairman of the committee on the disposition of western lands, presented an ordinance to Congress in May, 1784, in which no mention was made of schools. The activity of Jefferson in the promotion of schools in Virginia is evidence that this failure on his part was not due to indifference toward education. About a year later, April, 1785, a similar ordinance was presented in which provision was made for schools, for religion, and for charitable purposes. Two amendments resulted in the striking out of the words providing for the support of religion and charitable purposes. On May 20, 1785, the ordinance was passed which provided for the granting of the sixteenth section in every township for school maintenance*, but no land was granted for religion and charitable purposes.

The lack of definiteness in this ordinance concerning its operation illustrates the third lack. Not until the ordinance of 1802, known as the Enabling Act for Ohio, and again in the act of 1803, relative to the disposition of lands in Michigan, was Congress explicit in this matter. The attitude of Congress was made clearer in the act of 1787, known as the ordinance for the disposition of lands in the

*Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1892-1893, Vol. II, p. 1269: Journals of Congress, 1774-1778, Vol. IV, pp. 520-522, appendix, 17, 18.

Northwest Territory, when section number twenty-nine was given for religion, though only two instances appear showing that this part of the provision was carried out.* However, the granting of the sixteenth section was made perpetual by this ordinance, and the provision has been carried out in all western states. These two acts conveyed a clearer attitude of the Government's relation to public education, that of "positive support of schools by the public lands; the necessity of school asociations in order to obtain the benefit of that grant; and the inseparable connection of land titles with the idea of education."† Twelve states received the allowance of the sixteenth lot between March 3, 1803, and August 14, 1846.‡

According to the act of August 14, 1848, the thirty-sixth section, in addition to the sixteenth, was provided for schools in all public-land states to be admitted thereafter. Senator Stephen A. Douglas was instrumental in securing this grant. It arose out of a need for additional support. The availability of the land made the measure an acceptable one. Seven states and eight territories received this allowance§ which with what the above states receive according to the "Sixteenth Section Grant," makes an aggregate of 67,893,-919 acres, given for common schools.

In addition to these, certain other public lands were granted the several states by the Government for special purposes. It seems that the primary object of the Government in these grants was that of providing for the development of the states, and in a certain sense for the conservation of the states' resources. This is the attitude of the Government in providing for the internal development of the states. The states interpreting the spirit of these grants rather than the letter turned the funds, through consent of Congress and by action of respective legislatures, to the support of

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*Ohio Company Tract and what is known as the Symmes Purchase. See Am. J. Educ., Vol. 17, p. 68.

†Am. J. Educ., Vol. 28, p. 932.

‡Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Michigan, Arkansas, Florida, Iowa, and Wisconsin. Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1880, p. XXXI; also 1892-1893, Vol II, p. 1283.

§States: California, Minnesota, Oregon, Kansas, Nevada, Nebraska, and Colorado; Territories: Washington, New Mexico, Utah, Dakota, Montana, Arizona, Idaho, and Wyoming. See Report of the U. S. Com. Educ., 1880, p. XXXI.

schools. The "Five Hundred Thousand Acre Grant", perhaps the most important of these for education, was made by act of Congress, September 4, 1841. Wisconsin, Iowa, Oregon, Kansas, California, and Nevada provided in their state constitutions for the diversion of this fund to educational purposes. In Iowa alone 535,473.54 acres were put at the disposal of the schools, the excess of acreage being adjusted by the State's paying the General Government one dollar and twenty-five cents per acre for it.* All the states admitted into the Union since the passage of this act participated in this grant except West Virginia and Texas,† the total acreage granted in this way reaching 9,000,000.‡

In addition to this grant, certain portions of the public domain contiguous to salt springs were granted to the states with the provision that they be used as the legislatures directed. These lands came to be at the disposal of the schools. "In Ohio the amount realized from the sale of the saline grants and added to the common school fund was reported in 1850 at $41,024; in Indiana the state school fund realize from the same source, $85,000."§ Louisiana, Mississippi, and Indiana by constitutional provision places the revenues from the sales of swamp lands, granted by act of Congress, 1850.‖ to the benefit of public education. Missouri, Ohio, Wisconsin, and other states, made similar disposition of these lands by general laws. Not all of these funds went to the common schools. Iowa, for example, finally placed the returns to the State University though the proceeds for a time had been used by the public schools.†† Riparian lands in some states found a place in the school funds.‡‡

Seminaries and Universities:—The granting of land and other kinds of support to higher education originated with the colonies. Rhode Island, though in general opposed to a public school system, took early and definite steps toward assisting boys to a higher education. It was a means of producing leadership, heartily appre-

*Buffum, Federal and State Aid to Education in Iowa, pp. 26-36.

†These states had no public lands within their borders.

‡See U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., No. 2, 1879, p. 10 (Reprint).

§Ibid, p. 11.

‖U. S. Statutes at Large, Vol. IX, pp. 519-520.

††Buffum, Federal and State Aid to Education in Iowa; pp. 47-54.

‡‡Murray, Hist. Ed. N. J., p. 23.

ciated by the Colony.* The ordinance of 1787 which provided for federal aid to higher education was an expression of the growing ideas embodied in the constitution of Massachusetts,—a constitution borrowed in part by twenty-five or more states, as well as by the Government itself when the ordinance of 1787 was drafted.

This continental ordinance of 1787 relating to the disposal of lands in the Northwest Territory which by relinquishment had become public domain, came to contain a provision for a "seminary of learning", a university, in the territory north of Ohio. Two complete townships of land in each state made out of this territory could be given perpetually by the respective legislatures for the support of state universities.† Though Congress was no doubt in favor of education, the provision in the second proposed bill for a grant for religious and charitable purposes complicated the problem, so that a great deal of effort and parliamentary ingenuity seemed to be necessary to secure favorable action. The provisions of this ordinance came to be applied in the case of all states admitted to the Union. It is difficult to ascertain with any degree of accuracy the value of lands granted for higher institutions, but the acreage granted is reasonably well calculated. From the figures given in the Report of the Commissioner of Education,‡ it is found that an aggregate of almost two and one-half millions of acres of land valued at five dollars per acre§ has been given for higher education.

Colleges of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts:—In July, 1862, 10,450,000 acres‖ were provided by act of Congress for the establishment of Colleges of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts. This grant in particular, as were all grants in general, is significant for the stimulation it gave to the states. It served to call out an aggressive attitude on the part of the states to the assumption of responsibility in providing educational opportunities for their citizens. This type of school has received ready support from the

*Murray, Hist. Ed., N. J., p. 10.

†U. S. Statutes at Large, Vol. VI, p. 810.

‡Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1896-1897, Vol. II, pp. 1137-1164.

§$4.73.

‖Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1892-1893, Vol. II, p. 1284; also U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1890, No. 1, p. 338.

states, as well as from the Government,—a fact partially explained at least by local interest and need. In this act we have had illustrated for us the result of persistent state and local co-operation in demanding of Congress liberal grants from the public domain for this type of institution. By the act of 1862,—a similar act having been vetoed by President Buchanan in 1858,—thirty thousand acres of land were granted to each state for each senator and representative in Congress, according to the census of 1860. The attitude of the Government is shown in the provisions drafted for receiving the grant. The states to receive the benefits of the grant had to accept the terms of the ordinance within two years and to provide for a college within five.* This was amended slightly in 1866† making it easier for the states.

The student of educational history must be cautious, however, in assuming that Congress was anxious to promote education. It seems that she had in mind rather the development and conservation of the resources of the states and to this end this type of school seemed expedient. Time has shown that Congress did better than she knew in this respect. She was about equally divided on the question of these grants, and in 1858 could not pass the ordinance over the veto of the president. It seems evident that the act of 1862, like those of 1785 and 1787, was secured only by political and business ingenuity rather than by educational statesmanship, for it was passed and approved only after repeated petitions from the states, farmers' institutes, and associations, and because of the general persistency of public opinion. We must remember however that Abraham Lincoln was president in 1862 and that he arose as high in educational statesmanship in encouraging and signing the bill as James Buchanan had arisen in political craftiness in vetoing the bill of 1858 thereby espousing the constitutional objections of scheming politicians of the South who opposed agricultural and technical education.‡ Opponents of the act asserted

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*U. S. Statutes at large, Vol. XII, pp. 503-505.

†U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1890, No. 1, p. 340, for amount derived from the sale of the United States land or script in accordance with the act of 1862.

‡Knight, G. W., History and Management of Land Grants.—In American Historical Association Papers, Vol. I.

that it was as unconstitutional to grant donations to the states as to offer force or violence,—force and violence being vital topics of debate at this time. Therefore, to say that the land grant acts represented the highest degree of educational statesmanship is hardly true to the facts. The educational statesmanship which was manifested at the time was quite as much outside of Congress as it was in.

Private Enterprises.—Congress was deluged during the early part of the ninetheenth century with petitions for donations of land. Schools for the deaf and dumb, insane asylums, orphanages, special interests, colleges, and other enterprises presented petitions for donation. Congress has been conservative in these matters and for the most part has refused to grant lands for such purposes; even the general and almost unanimous appeal for the land grant to agricultural and mechanical colleges was rejected effectively by one president. It was easier evidently for the Government to see the importance of granting aid through land grants and otherwise to agencies concerned with material prosperity than to agencies of education. Private enterprises seldom secured the attention of Congress.

The grant of a township of land in the State of Ohio, February the twenty-seventh, 1801, to Arnold Henry Dohrman known as the "Dorhman Grant" though not educational is mentioned here to present an instance of how the policy of the Government has come to be defined. Though consistently refusing grants to private enterprises, even aid to institutions for the deaf and dumb, or the unfortunate insane, on the grounds that these are state matters, yet she offers no hesitation in reimbursing by grant a man who as agent of the United States, out of his own generous impulse, fed, clothed and nursed unfortunate sailors who had been captured by British cruisers.* The same attitude is expresed in grants to private individuals for special service to the country†, for exploration‡, and other works. Comparatively little was granted for education.

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*Donaldson, The Public Domain, p. 209.

†March 3, 1803, "Congress directed the Secretary of War to issue land warrants to Major-General LaFayette for 11,520 acres" and later gave him a sum of money. See Donaldson, The Public Domain, p. 211.

‡Louis and Clark Expedition by act of March 3, 1807. See Donaldson, p. 211.

Among the grants, the following are given by Mr. Eaton:*

Alabama	Lafayette Academy . . .	4,801 acres
Connecticut	Asylum for Education of Deaf and Dumb	23,040 acres
Dakota	Holy Cross Mission	160 acres
Kentucky	Asylum for Education of Deaf and Dumb	22,400 acres
Louisiana	Pine Grove Academy (Quit Claim) .	4,040 acres
Mississippi	Jefferson College	30 acres
Missouri	Town Lots (In aggregate) . . .	1,400 acres

The asylum in Kentucky became on March 3, 1843, a function in Centre College of Kentucky. This grant was made April 5, 1826.† Though only thirty acres are reported in the above list for Jefferson College, yet by act of Congress, March 3, 1803, thirty-six section of Mississippi public lands were granted for the use of this college. The readiness of Congress to respond to the petition of the newly organized board of Jefferson College seems to have been due to several reasons: first, ossibly an appreciation of the impediments peculiar to a community "but lately emerged from the lethargic influence of an arbitrary government,"‡ and of the effort of the trustees to meet this situation; second, and no less effective, though possibly not as fundamental, the opportunity for Congress to memoralize Thomas Jefferson in the name of the college; and third, probably an assumed obligation in the adjustment of land claims in the South.

Congress as said above did little for private or specific institutions, yet she assumed some direct responsibility of educational aid in the District of Columbia. In 1833 Congress made an appropriation of lands to Georgetown College (now Georgetown University), an institution under the control of the Roman Catholic Church. These lands, according to Blackmar,§ were valued at twenty-five thousand dollars. This was the only help given this institution. Columbian College, changed to Columbian University in 1873, and to George Washington University in 1904, was established in the dis-

*U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1879, No. 2, p. 9 (reprint).
†United States Statutes, Vol. VI, p. 339.
‡U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1899, No. 2, p. 26.
§Ibid, 1890, No. 1, p. 55.

trict of Columbia by Congress in 1821. The original Columbian College founded by the Baptists in Philadelphia and removed to Washington was made the theological section of Columbian College now under national direction. Columbian College in Washington received the proceeds of sales of land to the amount of twenty-five thousand dollars,—a fund set aside for the endowment of professors' salaries.*

SUPPORT BY APPROPRIATION.

The Federal Government, in no way emphasizing appropriation of moneys for education, has granted in many instances what is essentially money. Wherever a per cent of the sales of lands is granted for educational purposes, it is essentially the appropriation of moneys. Land moneys constitute the larger portion of the funds given by the Federal Government; however, the attitude of Congress has been expressed occasionally by favorable or unfavorable action on appropriation bills.

Many statesmen, foremost among whom being George Washington, advocated the appropriations of money for a national university as a safeguard for the nation. This appropriation was never made, but the statesmanship displayed at the time perhaps compensated for any advantage the establishment of a university might have afforded. The first main argument of George Washington in favor of appropriating money for a national university was the leaders of an unestablished, though independent government, must be trained in the struggles of the country itself, and therefore to depend upon other countries for the training of the youth was unsafe. Washington was opposed by those who felt that the obligation for educating youth rested with the states or if appropriations were to be made that they should go to such institutions as were already established. Another reason, and perhaps more inclusive for Washington's espousal of the idea of a national university in preference to aiding seminaries already established, was the need of an American institution sufficiently endowed by national aid that the best professors available could be secured, an impos-

*U. S. Statutes, IV, p. 603.

sibility in narrow and meagerly endowed seminaries. In spite of repeated attempts to get action in Congress favorable to a national university, nothing could be done and in 1873, the last attempt was made when a bill was reported providing for a university endowed by the Federal Government with twenty millions of dollars upon which five per cent interest was to be secured.* The rise of such institutions as Johns Hopkins, Clark, Leland Stanford Junior, Chicago, and ten or a dozen others weakened the demand for a national university. Our purpose in speaking at length of this struggle is to show that the arguments have been without doubt beneficial in two directions; first, it has called out large effort for promoting the best of higher institutions by private benevolence, and second, it has thrown upon the states again the obligation of promoting higher education. It is evident that a national university to meet present day needs must be of higher order than institutions supported by private philanthropy or by state appropriations.† A new activity favorable to the establishment of a national university is gathering strength rapidly.

Distribution of Surplus Revenues:—The first appropriation,—which in fact was not an appropriation but a deposit,—was voted‡ by Congress in 1836 when all but five millions of dollars of the surplus accumulated in the sales of lands and from the revenues of the Government were deposited with the several states as loans for an indefinite period of time. This distribution of the funds was not made for the purpose of promoting schools, but for the more general purpose of assisting states in developing their resources in which educational interests participated. The immediate motive perhaps was of a political nature.§ That this distribution came directly to the promotion of education throughout the country is evidenced in the fact that eight states appropriated the entire income to education; seven others appropriated part to education, some as high as one-half; only one limited the income to internal improvement; and the rest granted the fund to general purposes in which

*House Report No. 89, 42nd Congress, third session, I, 90.

†See U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1890, No. 1, pp. 29-41, for a discussion of the arguments for a National University.

‡U. S. Statutes at Large, V, p. 55.

§Bourne, The History of the Surplus Revenue Fund.

educational interests would participate.* This has been a source of great aid to education where so used. New York is reported† to have received eleven millions of dollars in forty-three years from this fund. Congress has never called for the deposit, nor any part of it, though there have been times when the Government could have been relieved in critical situations by such recall. The fact that no call has ever been issued and no expression made as to the future policy of the Government in the matter, it is understood that the money will never be demanded.‡

Grants on Sale of Lands:—A large sum of money went to the education fund in many states from the sale of lands located within the states. These are known as the two, three, and five per cent grants from the net proceeds of the sales of public lands. The following table, compiled for the most part from the Annual Reports of the Commissioner of the General Land Office and in part from information received directly from the Office of the Commissioner shows accrued amounts paid to the states for educational purposes.

The first of these acts were passed in Ohio in 1802 and 1803, as indicated in the table. The represent the attitude of the Federal Government toward the internal development of the states. In this respect it is similar to the Surplus Revenue Fund, the Surplus Revenue Fund coming also, for the most part, from the enormous sales of public lands. In the Ohio act of 1802, the State was granted two per cent of the net proceeds from the sales of lands, and in 1803 three per cent additional,§ for certain internal improvements

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*Mr. Murray, secretary of the board of Regents, of New York, gives a table in Historical Records, 91, showing amounts given to each state and the purpose to which it was devoted, which Blackmar reproduces in U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1890, No. 1, p. 47.

†Ibid, p. 46, note 6.

‡The writer is supported in his statements by a letter from Chief Clerk, L. A. Kalbach, of the United States Bureau of Education, dated October 9, 1911. His concluding statements are, "The country has passed through three wars and several financial panics since 1836, and if there has been any disposition to ask repayment, abundant justification for such action has already repeatedly arisen. I do not think that any State need hesitate in any anticipated educational expansion because of the possibility of losing her share of that money."

§Acts of Congress, April 30, 1802, and March 3, 1903, (2 U. S. Statutes, 173 and 225).

State	Per Cent	Fiscal Year 1909	Fiscal Year 1910	Fiscal Year 1911	Fiscal Year 1912	Aggregate June 30, 1912 Inclusive	Acts
Alabama	2-3	$ 917.15	$ 749.18	$ 901.29	$ 599.40	$1,077,904.72	Mar. 2, '19; Sept. 4, '41
Arizona					1,652.99	1,652.99	
Arkansas	5	3,374.12	1,676.80	4,864.92	1,013.16	324,912.00	June 23, 1836
California	5	17,754.34	15,718.58	14,083.51	17,354.82	1,080,053.26	June 27, 1906
Colorado	5	18,590.81	20,617.21	16,165.94	15,355.24	460,748.30	Mar. 3, 1875
Florida	5	1,473.77	1,098.38	1,920.41	4,176.27	137,336.06	Mar. 3, 1845
Idaho	5	10,992.62	13,440.14	11,178.12	10,541.35	241,883.36	July 3, 1890
Illinois	2-3					1,187,908.98	Apr. 18, '18; Dec. 12, '20
Indiana	2-3					1,040,255.26	Apr. 19, '16; Apr. 11, '18
Iowa	5					633,638.10	Mar. 3, 1845
Kansas	5	7,382.69	6,180.63	3,927.04	3,115.86	1,125,469.41	Jan. 29, 1861
Louisiana	5	1,462.48	179.75	429.25	325.83	468,187.89	Feb. 20, '11; Apr. 8, '12
Michigan	5	1,445.48	393.77	203.68	284.88	587,068.52	June 23, '36; Jan. 26, '37
Minnesota	5	16,460.12	7,995.76	3,959.64	2,246.39	588,283.08	Feb. 26, '57; May 11, '58
Mississippi	2-3				82.71	1,069,926.62	Mar. 1, 1817; May 4, 1822; Sept. 4, 1841
Missouri	2-3	1,455.43	1,803.49	490.31	669.87	1,060,430.61	Mar. 6, '20; May 3, '22
Montana	5	25,071.09	31,558.77	34,336.35	37,598.88	404,245.88	Feb. 22, 1889
Nebraska	5	4,763.76	4,538.07	6,473.11	8,006.32	559,394.45	Apr. 19, '64; Feb. 9, '67
Nevada	5	3,467.88	2,660.55	3,533.99	2,605.77	32,124.54	Mar. 21, 1864
New Mexico	5	25,526.06	23,293.48	15,083.76	10,587.31	121,040.78	June 21, 1898
North Dakota	5	55,167.40	39,448.72	31,908.11	23,764.36	529,027.11	Feb. 22, 1889
Ohio	2-3					999,353.01	Apr. 30, 1802; Mar. 3, 1803
Oklahoma	5	24,014.14	11,484.23	5,828.[illegible]	3,161.83	59,117.89	June 16, 1906
Oregon	5	41,144.76	13,532.09	12,785.67	15,328.30	717,016.11	Feb. 14, 1859
South Dakota	5	40,567.34	35,069.76	49,977.18	44,582.90	308,068.20	Feb. 22, 1889
Utah	5	10,728.35	17,310.06	4,264.22	5,834.00	81,694.78	July 16, 1894
Washington	5	19,303.20	13,018.42	10,184.61	6,026.78	396,930.35	Feb. 22, 1889
Wisconsin	5	355.14	91.52	166.50	104.48	586,408.58	Aug. 6, '46; Mar. 3, '47; May 29, '48
Wyoming	x	18,517.52	14,442.56	14,889.95	23,870.07	213,387.64	July 10, 1890
		$349,936.15	$276,401.92	$247,855.76	$238,889.77	$16,093,467.43	

x Not given.

specifically stated.* Similarly, as indicated in the table, other grants of two, three, or five per cent were made to the states admitted to the Union since Ohio, except Maine, Texas, and West Virginia, which had no public lands within their borders.

It seems clear from the statutes that these acts were made primarily as an "encouragement" to the sales of public lands within the states. The distribution among the states was for internal improvements. The laying out of roads for instance, already quoted from the Act of Ohio, was a pioneer and significant expression of state development. These grants express only incidentally a favorable attitude toward education. They represented first of all the attitude of Congress toward expansion and settlement for purposes considered in the act of 1787, namely, to meet the debts of the Government, and to encourage the development of the states in a co-operative endeavor to meet these debts. That Congress acquiesced in the request of the states to divert the fund to education was evidence of her appreciation of the function of education in its effect upon expansion and settlement quite as much at it was an expression of educational statesmanship. Justification for this discussion in this connection rests with the significance of this diversion of funds; some specifically set aside for purpose of internal improvement, others for the promotion of education through the inititative of the state and the ingenuity of the Government. Each grant to the states involved a special contract as indicated in the special acts of Congress.† The fundamental significance of these grants arises therefore from the interpretation made by the states as to the underlying principles of expansion,—an interpretation in which Congress acquiesced. The whole amount granted in this way from 1803 to 1876 according to Mr. Eaton‡ was $6,508,819.11, of which, he reports, $2,997,234.35 as an estimate of the amount devoted to education.§ The acts of Congress relative to states‖ admitted into the Union later specified that five per cent of the sales of public

*"Laying out, opening, and making roads within said state, and to no other purposes whatsoever".

†See table above, p. 44, for number of states and the dates of special acts.

‡U. S. Bureau of Education, Circ. of Inf., 1879, pp. 10,11 (Reprint).

§See table above, p. 44, for report of these funds to June 30, 1910.

‖For example, Idaho, Montana, North Dakota, Washington, and others.

lands should be devoted to the permanent common school fund of the respective states. Thus a fund originally set aside, as in the first act for Ohio, for "laying out" and "making roads", and "to no other purpose whatsoever" came to be given to the permanent school funds of the states.

Colleges of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts:—The act of 1862 known as "The First Morrill Act", has done much for the establishment of this type of institution. Special acts of state legislatures called many institutions into being, in order that they might claim the benefits of the provisions of the act. After twenty-eight years of experience in promoting this type of institution, the inadequacy of the support fund became a serious problem in the proper development of the institutions. A bill providing for a continuing appropriation was approved by Congress, August 30, 1890. It consisted of an appropriation of $15,000 for the year ending June 30, 1890, with an annual increase thereafter of $1,000 over the amount of the preceding year until the annual appropriation to each state and territory should amount to $25,000, a sum which was to be appropriated annually thereafter out of funds from the sales of public lands.* Under this act the following appropriations have been made:†

1890	$ 660,000	1899	1,152,000	1908	1,500,000
1891	704,000	1900	1,200,000	1909	1,750,000
1892	782,000	1901	1,200,000	1910	2,000,000
1893	864,000	1902	1,200,000	1911	2,225,000
1894	912,000	1903	1,200,000	1912	2,500,000
1895	960,000	1904	1,200,000	1913	2,500,000
1896	1,008,000	1905	1,200,000	1914	2,500,000
1897	1,056,000	1906	$1,200,000		
1898	$1,104,000	1907	1,200,000		

This table illustrates the friendly attitude of the Government toward this type of school, although but fifty-four years have passed since James Buchanan attached his signature vetoing the bill for the original grant of lands. It has come about through the efficiency of these institutions in promoting the material progress of the

*Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1906, Vol. II, p. 1237.

†Taken from the Reports of the U. S. Com. of Educ., supplemented by special reports from the office of the Bureau of Education. See also Annual Report of the office of experiment stations for the dear ended June 30, 1907.

country.* A glance at the revenues of the land grant colleges for the year 1904 † will show a high percentage of Government support in the maintenance of these institutions. Statistics taken from Miss Spethmann's report ‡ shows that the Government paid more than twenty-two per cent of all expenditures in these colleges. She reports † the following analysis of the total revenues, amounting in 1904 to $12,194,341.02:

Federal Source.—	
Interest on grant of 1863	$ 730,001.58
Interest on other grants	85,134.65
Appropriation, act of 1890	.1,200,000.00
Experiment stations	695,999.67
Total	2,711,135.90
State Source.—	
Interest on fund, or regular appropriation	1,074,605.22
Appropriation for current expenses	2,332,485.56
Appropriation for building, etc.	2,210,811.39
Total	5,617,902.17
Other Sources.—	
Other endowment	680,123.23
Tuition	1,041,692.48
Incidental fees	395,424.27
Miscellaneous	1,748,062.97
Grand total	$ 12,194,341.02

Further evidence of the Government's friendly attitude toward this type of institution is illustrated in the appropriating act of March, 1907, amendatory to the "Second Morrill Act", known as the "Nelson Amendment". By this amendment, a more complete and adequate endowment was provided for these colleges, and for such as might be established. The first appropriation was five thousand dol-

*See Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1895-1896, Vol. II, pp. 1243-1298, for special report of Mr. Wellford Addis, specialist in the Bureau on Colleges endowed by Congress for the benefit of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts.

†Statistics of Land Grant Colleges and Agricultural Experiment Stations, compiled by Miss M. T. Spethmann. (Reprint from Annual Report of the Office of Experiment Stations for the year ended June 30, 1904.)

‡According to the same report for 1904, the total of permanent funds and equipment of land grant colleges for that year was $72,540,588.11.

lars for the year ending June 30, 1908, in addition to the former provision, and an annual increase of five thousand dollars for four years, and thereafter the annual sum to be paid to each state and territory shall be $50,000 to be applied according to the provision of the former grants. "The Bureau of Education acts as the medium for communication between the Department of the Interior and the institutions concerned and collects and examines the reports that are to be made by these institutions to the Secretary of the Interior."* The total amount appropriated for the year ending June 30,1908, was $1,500,000, an increase of $300,000 over the appropriation of the year before; for the year ending June 30, 1909, $1,750,000, or $35,000 for each institution; June 30, 1910, $2,000,000, or $40,000 for each institution. For the year 1911, the amount was $2,250,000;† 1912, 1913, and 1914, respectively, $2,500,000.

Experiment Stations:—According to the act of March 2, 1887,‡ known as the "Hatch Experiment Station Act", the sum of $15,000 was appropriated to each state and each territory entitled under the provisions of the act, out of moneys accruing from sales of public lands. This act was in a large sense an "encouragement to systematic and scientific work, carefully reported;" for the making of the report was a condition of receiving the appropriation. Connecticut had had the honor of conducting the first experiment station;§ other states had followed. "In 1886, about twelve such stations were in operation."‖ During the following year this type of work was accelerated by the passage of the "Hatch Experiment Station Act" which provided for the support of these stations. "In the early years when new states were being formed and new stations organized, the disbursements did not always coincide with the years in which the appropriations were made." According to the provisions, certain supervising powers are vested in the Government through the Department of Agriculture and the Treasury. Though the first payment was to have been made on the first

*Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1906, Vol. 2, 1238.

†According to the provisions of the Act.

‡U. S. Statutes at Large, Vol. 24, 440-442.

§Established, 1875, by Mr. Orange Judd, of Middletown, Conn. See report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1890-1891, Vol. I. p. 635.

‖Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1890-1891, Vol. 1, p. 635.

day of October, 1887, no payments were actually made till 1888. The appropriations and disbursements under this act are as follows:*

	Appropriations by Congress	Disbursements by the Treasury
For the fiscal year ending June 30:		
1888	$585,000	$427,500.00
1889	585,000	713,792.63
1890	585,000	624,523.56
1890	47,500†	
1891	660,000	662,499.74
1892	708,000	718,333.30
1893	708,000	702,408.67
1894	720,000	723,561.83
1895	720,000	719,701.00
1895	720,000	719,802.89
1897	720,000	716,199.86
1898	720,000	723,321.14
1899	720,000	719,986.56
1900	720,000	719,998.70
1901	720,000	719,998.90
1902	720,000	719,469.72
1903	720,000	719,999.50
1904	720,000	719,999.67
1905	720,000	718,163.45
1906	960,000	956,617.70
1907	1,056,000	1,007,732.30
1908	1,152,000	1,150,585.55
1909	1,248,000	1,246,231.90
1910	1,344,000	1,342,574.58
1911	1,440,000	‡

The disbursements by the treasury for 1912 was $718,850.80. The appropriations for 1913 and 1914 remain the same as for 1912.

*Report from the office of Experiment Stations, November 10, 1911.

†Deficiency appropriations of $30,000 for Arizona, New Mexico, and Utah, $15,000 for Rhode Island, and $2.500 for North Dakota.

‡Not available at the time of the report.

The appropriations for the Alaska Experiment station were $30,000 for 1913 and $35,000 for 1914, according to the report of Mr. True, Director.

"In Alabama, Connecticut, Hawaii, Louisiana, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina and Virginia separate stations are maintained wholly or in part by state funds. A number of sub-stations are also maintained in different states. Excluding the sub-stations, the total number of stations in the 48 states is 59, and in the United States, including Alaska, Hawaii, Porto Rico and Guam, 65. Of these, 50 receive appropriations provided for by the acts of Congress approved March 2, 1887, and March 16, 1906, and 4 by other Federal enactments.

"The total income of the stations maintained under the acts of 1887 and 1906 during 1912 was $4,068,240.09, of which $1,440,000 (Hatch fund, $720,000; Adams fund, $720,000) was received from the National Government, the remainder $2,628,240.09 coming from the following sources: state governments, $1,492,798; individuals and communities, $54,878.51; fees for analyses of fertilizers, $129,884.61; sales of farm products, $230,271.81; miscellaneous including all balances, $720,407.04. In addition to this, the office of experiment stations had an appropriation of $424,000 for the past fiscal year, including $30,000 each for the Alaska, Hawaii, and Porto Rico experiment stations, $15,000 for the Guam experiment station, $15,000 for nutrition investigations, $100,000 for irrigation investigations, $100,000 for drainage investigations, and $10,000 for farmers' institutes and agricultural schools. The value of the additions to the equipment of the stations in 1912 is estimated as follows: buildings, $1,003,516.47; libraries, $45,462.83; apparatus, $71,492.73; farm implements, $70,659.64; live stock, $99,774.49; miscellaneous, $215,221.79; total, $1,506,127.95."*

Agricultural experiment stations, provided for the act of March 2, 1887, and March 16, 1906 are operating in all states and territories. Further, by special appropriations, the work has been carried to Alaska, Hawaii, Porto Rico and Guam. Fifty-five stations in the United States are provided for by acts of Congress and five by state funds wholly or in part. The justification for this expendi-

*Statistics of Land Grant Colleges and Agricultural Experiment Stations, 1912, by Butler B. Hare, Assistant in Agricultural Education, pp. 235-236.

ture has been demonstrated and the development of scientific agriculture is recognized as fundamental to our national life.

OTHER GOVERNMENT INTERESTS.

It has been pointed out constantly that responsibility, not assumed by the states, or not compatible with the powers of the states reverted to the Government. The second half of the nineteenth century presented to the Government many such situations. Therefore, in addition to the aid rendered to the states through grants of land or appropriations of money, the Government had to assume the responsibility,—logically hers,— of providing for certain types of agencies of educational progress. It has been through this process of directing and supporting these agencies, more or less disconnected and isolated in function from the regular agencies and systems of education, that the Government has come to recognize more fully her responsibility of correlating, co-ordinating, and assisting the general agencies of education, as a distinct function.

Alaska:—The Government has assumed the responsibility of providing for the education of the youth of Alaska. What had been done there crudely though generously by private endeavor was in 1884 supplemented by an act of Congress. An appropriation of $25,000 in that year was the beginning of the Government's effort to this end. The following table * shows exactly what has been done.

1884	$25,000	1897	$30,000
1887	15,000	1898	30,000
1888	25,000	1899	30,000
1889	40,000	1900	30,000
1890	50,000	1901	30,000
1891	50,000	1902-1906	334,438.46†
1892	50,000	1906	50,000
1893	40,000	1907	100,000
1894	30,000	1908	215,000
1895	30,000	1909	212,000
1896	30,000	1910	212,000

*Compiled from the statistics in the Reports of the U. S. Com. of Educ. See 1907, Vol. I, p. 382.

†One-half of license fees.

No appropriations seem to have been made directly during the years 1902 to 1905 inclusive. For the period 1902 to 1906 inclusive, one-half of the license fees were turned to the support of education, which amounted to $334,438.46. In addition for 1906, an appropriation of $50.000 was made. This was doubled in 1907 and since that time the educational interests there have had more adequate support.*

Howard University.—With the freeing of the slaves, a tremendous responsibility rested with the Government in providing adequate facilities for making teachers and leaders for the colored people. The Freedman's Bureau,† which was established in 1866, undertook the establishment of schools. The Bureau approached by benevolent societies assisted the freedmen in providing schools and further encouraged them to support the schools for themselves. "During the five years of its work, the Bureau spent $6,513,955.55, of which a considerable portion went to educational purposes."‡ It was during this period of extension that Howard University was established. The original buildings for Howard University were built out of the Freedmen's Bureau Fund, equal in all to about one-half million of dollars.

"The first appropriation appears to have been made on March 3, 1879, the amount being $10,000, for 'maintenance'. From that time forward the records seem to show that an annual appropriation has been made, the entire sum aggregating $1,217,700 up to June 30, 1810."§ Since 1910, appropriations have been made as follows: 1911, $104,700 which includes $2,300 for an engineering building; 1912, $92,900; 1913, $92,000; and 1914, $101,000; and 1915, $101,000.‖ Congress with her more liberal appropriations to the institution has opened up more adequate facilities for the education of the colored race. President Thirkield says further in his letter that, "the appropriation of $90,000 for the building and

*See statistics page 55, for appropriations to Alaskan Education for the last three years.

†See Cyclopedia of Education, edited by Paul Monroe, Vol. II, p. 669-700; see also Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1894-1895, Vol. II, pp. 1374-1377.

‡Cyclopedia of Education. See above.

§Thirkield, Wilbur P., President of Howard University, in a personal letter dated October 26, 1911.

‖Report of President S. M. Newman, 1914.

equipment of the Science Hall has for the first time opened adequate laboratory facilities in the exact sciences to the members of the colored race."

Hampton Institute:—This institution founded also as a result of the work of the Freedmen's Bureau and the co-operation of the negroes has shared in the Land-Grant Fund of the State of Virginia. According to the report of the principal, Hampton Institute has, "received one-third of the state appropriation annually, that is, $10,329.36, beginning 1872. In 1890 this was increased $5,000 through the "Morrill Act", and the increases according to this act were shared by Hampton Institute, the maximum of $15,000 being reached in 1911. The only other help from the Government consisted in the payment of $167 each for the schooling, board, and clothing of Indian children.

In connection with these institutions, it must be remembered that the negroes facilitated much of their progress. According to the report of 1870,* $61,513.03 were paid in tuition by the freedmen, who also paid a large part of the salaries of the teachers. The negroes are reported to have raised more than one-ninth of all the money spent by the Bureau.† Though the Government felt the responsibility of assisting the negro, this responsibility was enhanced by the initiative of the negro himself.

Smithsonian Institution:—Congress by act approved August 10, 1846, founded this institution. It was provided in this act and in the later act of March 12, 1894, that the United States should guard the fund which came to the institution through the bequest of Smithson in 1846 and should guarantee interest on the same at six per cent per annum. To show the amount of this fund in the Treasury of the United States and the analysis of the same, the following table is given.‡

The total amount of the Smithsonian fund on June 30, 1914, according to the report of H. W. Dorsey, Chief Clerk, was $1,002.-500.00, of which $960,500 is deposited in the United States Treasury. $42,000 additional is invested in registered and guaranteed

*Ninth Semi-Annual Report on Schools for Freedmen.

†$750,000.

‡Report of the Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution for the year ending June 30, 1913, pp. 5, 6.

bonds of the West Shore Railroad Company.

Deposited in the Treasury of the United States:	
Bequest of Smithson, 1846	$515,169.00
Residuary legacy of Smithson, 1867	26,210.63
Deposit from savings of income, 1867	108,620.37
Bequest of James Hamilton, 1875	1,000.00
Accumulated interest on Hamilton fund, 1895	1,000.00
Bequests of Simeon Habol, 1880	500.00
Deposits from proceeds of sale of bonds, 1881	51,500.00
Gift of Thomas G. Hodgkins, 1891	200,000.00
Part of residuary legacy of Thomas G. Hodgkins, 1894	8,000.00
Deposit from savings of income, 1903	25,000.00
Residuary legacy of Thomas G. Hodgkins	7,918.69
Deposits from savings of income, 1913	636.94
Bequest of William Jones Rhees, 1913	251.95
Deposit of proceeds from sale of real estate (gift of Robert Stanton Avery), 1913	9,692.42
Total amount of fund in the United States Treasury	$ 955,500.00

In addition to this co-operation of the Government with the Institution, Congress has entrusted certain specific functions to the Institution for which definite appropriations have been made from time to time. For the year ending June 30, 1914, Congress appropriated amounts as follows for disbursement through the Institution for the objects specified, information being taken from the Sundry act approved June 23, 1913:*

International Exchange Service	$32,000.00
Bureau of American Ethnology	42,000.00
Astrophysical Observatory	13,000.00
United States National Museum	
Furniture and Fixtures	50,000.00
Heating and lighting	50,000.00
Preservation of Collections	300,000.00
Books	2,000.00

*Report of the Chief Clerk, H. W. Dorsey.

Postage	500.00
Building Repairs	10,000.00
Bookstacks for Government Bureau Libraries	15,000.00
National Zoölogical Park	100,000.00
Readjustment of Boundaries of National Zoological Park	107,200.00
International Catalogue of Scientific Literature	7,500.00

Bureau of Education:—The United States Bureau of Education was established by act of Congress, March 2, 1867, as a Department of Education. The purpose of the Bureau was to show the condition and progress of education in the states by statistics and otherwise, and to diffuse "such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems, and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise to promote the cause of education throughout the country."* The act provided for an expenditure of $9,400 for salaries, and proper offices for the use of the Department. According to the report of the Commissioner of Education, † no appropriations except for salaries, were made until 1871, when the sum of one thousand dollars was appropriated for a library and $3,000 for the purpose of collecting statistics. In 1878 an appropriation of $1,500 was made for distributing documents. Up to 1878 an aggregate total of $218,807 had been expended for the work of the Bureau. From 1878 to June 30, 1910, $1,930,620 additional was appropriated specifically for the maintenance of the Bureau, making an aggregate total of $2,149,427. Since 1910 appropriations have been

	1911	1912	1913	1914
Salaries	$65,200	$66,800	$66,800	$66,800
Collecting Statistics	4,000	4,000	4,000	3,600
Distributing Documents	2,500	2,500	2,500	2,500
Alaska, Education	200,000	200,000	200,000	200,000
Alaska, Reindeer	12,000	12,000	5,000	5,000
Rural and Industrial Education		6,000	15,000	15,000
Traveling expenses				1,500

*From Act to Establish: See Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1907, Vol.1, p. 35.

†1907, Vol. I, p. 35.

enlarged and new work undertaken as the foregoing analysis of funds shows.*

In addition to the work of the Bureau, the Government undertakes certain other functions which are more or less identified with the educational progress of the Nation. The military and naval schools, the education of the youth of Porto Rico and Philippine Islands, participation in the support of the schools in the District of Columbia, represent other activities of the Federal Government toward promoting the integrity of the Union through the encouragement of education. The next chapter will deal with the expression of the initiative of states in promoting schools and the means of education, and the relation of their efforts to those of the Federal Government, on the one hand, and to private philanthropy and endeavor, on the other.

Early school support among the states

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*Special report of L. A. Kalbach, Chief Clerk.

EARLY SCHOOL SUPPORT AMONG THE STATES

"I cannot forbear repeating the opinion I expressed to the General Assembly three years ago, that the public schools should be supported by taxation of property, and that the present rate system, or per capita tax upon scholars, should be abolished. - - - - The per capita system is based upon the idea that education is a personal benefit for which those who receive it should pay, while the true theory of popular education is that it is a public benefit for which the public should pay."—GOVERNOR JAMES W. GRIMES.. Extract from message to the Seventh General Assembly of Iowa, January 12, 1856.

INTRODUCTION

The principles underlying the aggressive activities of the states were expressed in terms of character and the perpetuity of democracy. The notion that the safety of the state must rest with the intelligence of its citizens was no new notion at the beginning of the nineteenth century. However there was no system of schools, speaking broadly, which would promote the type of intelligence concerning which they had talked so ardently. They glowed over the dignity and truth of the oft-quoted sentiment: "Religion, Morality and Knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged"; but the methods of procedure for establishing and maintaining schools were but dimly appreciated even by the most ardent promoters of education.

The first half of the century presented many and difficult problems incident to the establishment of systems of schools throughout the several states; and with few exceptions, little had been accomplished toward establishing systems supported by the public prior to the middle of the century. It is important to note that forces were operating, bringing to recognition the need of state participation in promoting schools. This was a process of progressive change. The rise of the system has come therefore from certain spurts of co-operative spontaneity which has dignified the state with the responsibility of providing schools. In spite of prevalent indifference, contempt, and even open hostility, no other course but to espouse the notion of tax-supported schools was open to the states. Colonial experience had demonstrated the desirability and inevitableness of the state's assuming the function of correlating and co-ordinating private and philanthropic effort; and this need was persistent during these formative times. The evils of private schools could be corrected* only by means of public schools, open, free, and equal to all the children of the state; and further economic progress

*See above, page 26, how the committee appointed in Rhode Island to investigate and recommend a method of regulating private schools reported in 1785 that the only method of correcting the evils of the private schools lay in the establishment of public schools.

was possible only by the order and the discipline of a correlating and co-ordinating unit of control.

The conditions produced in the unwholesome competition between private schools demanded a supervising and directing power of a more inclusive kind. Logically, this rested with the state; first, because in civil and political matters the state was being recognized as a competent and responsible directing agency; and second, because what is demanded by all the citizens of the state can be supplied only by the state—certainly not by competing factions, by venturers, or even by well meaning philanthropists. The responsibility of providing an efficient system of state-supported schools evolved gradually therefore out of the more or less chaotic, disintegrating, and decentralizing tendencies expressed in the "chance-medley" of private endeavor.

It is reported that Massachusetts, for example, in 1834, felt a certain lack of state integrity in school matters owing to the seeming over-emphasis of local initiative in school support, or rather to a seeming lack of correlation and co-ordination of the activities initiated by local communities. To level the system upward in addition to making tax laws obligatory, Massachusetts provided for the establishment of a permanent school fund—not for the purpose of supporting the system but to afford a means of securing a proper and valuable interaction between constituent units by means of a central agency of control. It typifies a general tendency toward interacting and co-operative endeavor.

The new problems of the early half of the nineteenth century in government, in industry, in national and state expansion, demanded a type of educated men not always available from the private schools where teachers and leaders tended to be narrow or biased. The real motivating force in the states, though supplemented and accentuated by the friendly attitude of the Government, and by the action of older sister states, seems to have sprung from an impulse to conserve the state itself in the midst of the diversifying and decentralizing forces of local democracy, individual opinion, and so-called individual right. Unanimity of thought and action was demanded in the stirring times following the war for independence and freedom, not only in promoting the religious life, but in the solution of the political,

industrial, and social problems. This imperative position of establishing and developing schools was the means of providing this more liberal type of education.

It is to be noted that the lack of a wholesome sentiment respecting *free* schools handicapped the efforts of the leaders. Among many who believed strongly in education there was a cold indifference to its promotion by means of state supported schools; first, because of the wide-spread popularity of privately-supported schools, second, because of contempt and open hostility expressed in their attitude toward public taxation for education. It is surprising to find that, as late as the year, 1901-02, a state could be found where over $14,000 was raised by subscription for the support of schools.*

The importance of the attitude of the Government is far-reaching. This attitude was expressed in the arguments relative to the disposition of lands in the Northwest Territory and in the acts subsequent thereto. It is clear, especially after the acts of 1802 and 1803†, that the states were to be obligated with the responsibility of the education of their citizens. What the states were to do and how they were to do it, were almost baffling problems; however, the cumulative methods of earlier efforts afforded a starting point in the progressive solution of these problems. It needs no argument to show that the educational development secured in the colonies by means of gift, benefaction, legacy, assessment, tuition, tax, appropriation, and grant of land, produced a rather wholesome educational sentiment. These early methods were the materials out of which was to be wrought a more comprehensive and scientific method. The diversity thus produced has worked a disadvantage in educational procedure only when the broad purpose of schools was lost sight of temporarily amidst the exaggerated notions of petty factionalism.

A study of the steps in the evolution of schools has been fascinating. First, education was supported through private efforts by means of fees and private funds. Parents were enjoined to assume the responsibility of educating their children. Second, edu-

*Report of the Supt. of Pub. Instruction of Kentucky, 1901-1903, pp. 360-361.

†For the Enabling Act of Ohio, see page 44.

cation was supported, in addition to fees and private funds, by means of philanthropic agencies. Education was distinctively a private enterprise, but it became institutionalized. Third, the school was quasi-public, that is, restriction on attendance was removed to some extent and the institution partook of the nature of a public school, though support was the same as in the above types, being supplied by benefactions and fees. Fourth, the school was semi-public in that fees were remitted to those not able to pay, and these fees were subscribed for, assessed upon the community, or even raised by local taxation. Here was a suggestion of co-operation between state and private endeavor though control remained with private individuals. Fifth, schools were supported by local taxation and oftentimes further assisted by the state. This step is illustrated in such states as had made provision for free schools particularly for the poor. The efforts of the states to provide for the children of the indigent gave rise to what were usually spoken of as "Charity" or "Pauper" schools. Sixth, the school became a state institution supported by taxation and further by state appropriation.

At this level the state undertook the task of directing the energies within her borders by establishing a uniform and efficient system made stable and effective by adequate direction and support. The purpose of the state was not to supplant private endeavor, nor to discourage the wholesome diversity of ideals and methods resulting from the expression of individual initiative, but rather to afford a more rational method of directing these endeavors in order to promote learning and to prevent the evils and extravagance of misguided and uneconomical efforts, typified so often in the enterprises of the venturer or of the philanthropist.

It is the purpose of this chapter to show how the various policies of the state systems came to be a reconstruction of these same experiences into a more scientific procedure; how the various methods of modern support, namely, the establishment of permanent funds, the levying of local taxes, the voting of state taxes, and the voluntary system, have co-operated; and how the effectiveness of all these methods lies in a full appreciation of the ideals underlying our national life. The rise and development of permanent school funds will be our first consideration.

PERMANENT SCHOOL FUNDS.

Purpose of the Funds.

The development of permanent school funds has had an important influence upon state initiative in educational matters. Just what the purposes were in the establishment of these funds is not always clear.* Whether it was to provide a scheme for abolishing school taxation, as seems to be illustrated in much of the attitude of Connecticut, or simply to relieve taxation, illustrated in New York and Massachusetts, or to encourage education by fixing a source of control and direction by which the stability of the system might be secured, cannot be answered in general terms. However, it seems doubtful that very many states had the notion at the beginning that these funds would substitute taxation.† There are sufficient evidences that some states soon lapsed to such a level of attitude. It was not difficult for such a notion to arise in the midst of active opposition. Since the main source of the permanent funds was the income from the sale of public lands, the hope of freedom from taxation would be quite natural, especially in the light of the discussions concerning the distribution of the Surplus Revenue Fund. The effectiveness of such a thought is appreciated when we recognize that most states had taken only preliminary steps in taxation and some not even those. When the states were expecting the funds to be adequate for their schools, when supplemented by rates, the term of school was limited so that the available funds were actually made adequate.

Sources of the Funds

The Government system of landgrants affords a most important item in the consideration of the sources of these funds.‡ It was not until the states accepted the conditions of the Acts of 1785, and

*Swift, Public Permanent Common School Funds in the United States, 1795-1905, pp. 160-203.

†Some states had permanent funds before taxation; some developed them long after; and still others never have had any.

‡See Swift, Public Permanent Common School Funds in the United States, 1795-1905; also Cubberly, School Funds and their Apportionment, pp. 55-66; and also Sylvester, The history of Permanent School Funds in the United States, in typewritten form, Library of the State University of Iowa.

1787, that the permanent school funds came to have integrity. The states took the initiative of attempting to secure their own development and expansion by means of schools as well as by "laying out public roads." To this end, lands other than those provided for in the Acts of 1785, and 1787, went to swell the large amounts of money that eventually found its way into the school funds in many states.* There was a general consistency in the states in the attitude expressed toward lands and moneys coming to them by congressional authority. In addition to these there may be given an almost innumerable list of sources of lesser importance and of more or less stability.

To the Surplus Revenue Deposit, were added moneys arising from sales of timber, mineral permits and leases, forfeitures, royalty on iron ore, profits on sale of bonds,—the last four illustrated in the case of Minnesota,—shares of railroad stock, as in Massachusetts, bank taxes, as in New Hampshire, parts of earnings of railroads, as in Georgia, income from state bank stock, as in Kentucky, fines for penal offenses, as in North Carolina, or marriage and tavern licenses, as in Delaware, county funds, as in Illinois, arrearage taxes, escheats, salvages, as in Florida, and private benefactions, illustrated in the Huntington† fund of Vermont. From these and other varied sources large sums of money have been accumulated for school purposes, which are evidences of the political and social significance of the problem. This medley of effort through the interaction of ideas suggested has tended to present a possible clue for the construction of a scientific method of procedure in school finance.

Growth of the Funds.

Among the states developing large school funds at an early day we have some striking examples of the growth and operation of the funds. Connecticut by 1833 had a common school fund valued at $1,000,000, due to the "Connecticut Reserve" provided for in the Ordinance of 1787. New York set apart lands in 1786 for

*Saline lands, swamp lands, Five Thousand Acre Grant, percentage of the proceeds of sales of lands, Surplus Revenue Fund, riparian lands, and so forth. See above pp. 35, 36.

†Vermont State School Report, 1906, p. 12.

schools and in 1801 ordered 500,000 acres of vacant and unappropriated lands sold and the receipts turned to the school funds. By 1821, the fund had increased to $1,155,827.40, and almost a million of acres remained unsold.* The fund at the present time amounts to $9,097,486. New Hampshire†, in 1821, provided for a half per cent tax on all bank capital in the State as fund for the support of a college. This fund, amounting to $64,000 in 1828, was distributed to the towns for the common schools, and for other educational purposes. Later other additions were made. New Hampshire now reports no permanent school fund. Maine, in 1821, appropriated the proceeds of twenty townships of public land for education. In 1820 New Jersey provided for a fund from bank stock and from the funded debt of the State.

Other states, such as Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and Vermont, made no attempt to develop a school fund during this early period, depending upon legislative appropriation for support. Pennsylvania has never had any permanent school fund. Forty-four states are now reported‡ as having permanent school funds. Accurate knowledge of the sources of these funds perhaps would require us to eliminate some from the list.§ Omitting New Hampshire from the list, the amounts of state and local permanent school funds range from $83,902,167‖ in Texas to $112,154 in New Mexico. The former, having the largest fund in aggregate and the second largest in proportion to population,†† spends but a very small amount per capita for educational purposes. Instances have been given where more school money was available from these funds for certain counties than was necessary for the support of the schools. In the light of the results incident to such experiences, and such as Connecticut in particular had with large permanent funds, real

*Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1894-95, Vol. II. p. 1538; also 1892-93, Vol. II, p. 1330.

†U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1898, No. 3, p. 15.

‡Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1912, Vol. II, p. 35, Table 17.

§New Hampshire is reported as having a fund of $59,470, and an income of $40,404, though the Department of Public Instruction at Concord reports that the State has no permanent funds. The discrepancy is due to a lack of uniform technique of expression concerning these funds.

‖Report for the year ending June, 1912. See p. 73 for 1914 report.

††Nevada stands first in proportion to population.

statesmanship was involved in the activity against the Federal bill of 1872 which provided for the distribution of all proceeds from sales of land to the several states for educational purposes.

Louisiana has been a victim of circumstances* more or less consistent with the history of the Southern States. It is in no sense implied that Louisiana lacked interest in her schools. She has compensated to a large degree for the diversion of the funds in 1872† by voting taxes to re-establish them. The evidence of her interest in this fund prior to the War is shown in the large amount accumulated.† The State had to contend with conditions incident to this period of reconstruction which was going on particularly in the South. There was general lawlessness on account of race troubles, which made difficult and oftentimes hazardous the protection of school moneys, lying in the treasury, from robbery or misappropriation. Then, school lands were thrown upon the market and sold at public auction for a mere fraction of their value; officers, not always school officers, were paid too generous salaries; spoilation‡ in the diversion of the fund to pay the source mileage and per diem of the legislators was so flagrantly inconsistent with the spirit of good government that the Supreme Court denounced the act. Other states suffered similar spoilation.§

The total permanent school fund in the United States is reported‖ at $285,545,534, distributed among forty-four states, if New Hampshire is counted. Massachusetts, a state always in the forefront of educational progress, was one of the states to assume a conservative attitude toward the development of such a fund, perhaps because of the flagrant evils incident to its establishment in Connecticut and elsewhere. She has not opposed the maintenance of such a fund but has attempted to keep it subordinate to efforts made through local taxation. In this she has expressed the

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*In 1872 the Free School Fund, amounting to more than $1,000,000 in bonds, was sold at public auction to pay mileage and per diem of legislators. See Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1894-1895, Vol. II, pp. 1303-1304.

†Ibid.

‡U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1898, No. 3, pp. 103, 104, and notes.

§For a valuable discussion of the loss of funds in the various states, see Swift, Public Permanent Common School Funds in the United States, 1795-1905, pp. 129-159.

‖Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1913, Vol. II, p. 35, Table 17.

wisdom of experience.

The permanent school fund in Massachusetts was not provided for until 1834. As early as 1647 taxation for the support of schools was permissive in that colony, and from 1827 has been compulsory. The establishment of the fund in Massachusetts therefore seems to have been due to a need of a greater centralization of control to correct evils peculiar to purely localized efforts and a demand for state initiative in correlating and co-ordinating educational agencies. The establishment of the permanent fund there was an advanced step and in no sense considered a scheme of relief from taxation.*

FUNCTION AND DISTRIBUTION OF THE FUNDS.

The function and distribution of the income of the permanent school funds are no clearer than are the purposes underlying them. The policies for the distribution of this income were not defined at first and in many cases the funds were not needed. An aggressive state like Massachusetts made taxation a condition of participation in the income of these funds. In this there was progressive change as is evidenced in the several legislative acts. In 1865 any town or city, to share in this distribution, had to raise by local school tax at least three dollars for each inhabitant from five to fifteen years of age.

In other states the lack of tax-supported schools made it a problem to distribute the moneys accrued from these productive funds. Often the pupils in private schools far out-numbered the pupils in common schools. As late as 1860, Florida with a population of 140,000 had only ninety-seven public schools and an enrollment of 2,032 pupils though she had one hundred thirty academies and other schools with an attendance of 4,486.† That a portion of the $22,386, income from the school fund went to these private schools is not therefore surprising.

Schools lands, during these early days, were largely under the control of wealthy men, and the income was distributed often in much the same way as were private benefactions. It was only as injustice became very flagrant that the legislatures did anything to conserve the fund. It is further reported concerning the funds

*For a discussion of early school funds in Massachusetts, see Chapter I; also Jackson, The development of school support in Colonial Massachusetts.

†U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1888, No. 7, pp. 19, 20.

in Florida that since "these officials (that is, County Commissioners) were not required to account to anyone for their disposition of the fund, it generally happened that it was distributed among the teachers of private schools according as their necessities demanded.*" There was no common school system. It was hard under the circumstances associated with the operation of the funds to convince the people that such a system was needed,—a situation not at all peculiar to this state.

In Indiana† the income of permanent school funds was distributed to denominational schools and to private associations which were conducting quasi-public schools. Owing in part to the intense loyalty to the private school and to denominational colleges, these came to be recognized as district schools, and therefore received their share of the public fund. Even Caleb Mills‡ who as "One of the People" literally accomplished the founding of an aggressive system of public schools was careful to give in his report§ of February 11, 1856, a rather glowing tribute‖ to these colleges. However, he was clear in his thought that many academies and seminaries would be absorbed and assimilated into the system of public schools when it became sufficiently graded.

Repeated instances could be given to show that no very intelligent thought was put into the establishment and distribution of permanent funds. Indiana is reported†† to have had three counties, which

*U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1888, No. 7, p. 15.

†Rawles, Centralizing Tendencies in the Administration of Indiana, p. 33.

‡At the time professor in Wabash College.

§Fourth Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for the State of Indiana. See Am. J. Educ., Vol. 2, pp. 480-487.

‖"These faculties (in institutions, products of private associated enterprises) cherish a much more cordial interest in the advancement of popular education and have been a much more direct and effective agency in its real progress than the superficial observer supposes, or is disposed to acknowledge. Its history in Indiana would put such sapient souls to the blush, were the curtain withdrawn, that hides from public gaze the labors of these instructors in the recitation room and in the study, through the pulpit and the newspaper columns. The baccalaureate addresses of their five presidents for the last twenty years, delivered before popular assemblies, have accomplished more to rouse the public mind and give right direction in reference to its educational interests than the combined efforts of all the ignorant, prejudiced, self-conceited college croakers since the 'flood'."

††Boone, History of Education in Indiana, p. 196.

never claimed their share of the Surplus Revenue Fund which was distributed to the organized counties for the support of the schools. The futility of efforts in Tennessee in behalf of public education is repeatedly illustrated in their seemingly careless attitude toward the disposition and utilization of school lands which amounted to hundreds of thousands of acres,—the "munificent benefaction" from the Federal Government. Possibly the defeat of the proper utilization of these lands for a common school system was due wholly,—certainly for the most part,—to the "indeterminable legislative wrangles brought on by the attempt of the common school public to utilize the national bounty for the children."* These wrangles "reveal the hostile elements in the ecclesiastical, social, and political centers of society that for eighty years postponed an effective organization of popular institutions for even the white children of the State."*

It seems therefore that the degree of efficiency in the operation of the fund in any state varied with the factors which could be only relatively constant. These factors would not appear in North Carolina as they would in Massachusetts or Minnesota. Some of these factors which are only relatively constant are expressed in the general progress and sentiment of the state, in the attitude of the state toward taxation, in the attitude of the state toward voluntary systems of school support, in the size of the fund accumulated and in the attitude of the state toward its increase, in the relative stability of the population, in the resources of the state, in the political and social situations, and in many other ways more or less variable.

Though it is true that many variable factors have been influential in determining the distribution of these funds, yet there is evolving out of the uncertain methods of the past a consciousness of the presence of more or less constant factors. Gradually the permanent fund, together with the state tax, has come to be recognized fundamentally as a means of levelling educational opportunities upward and of equalizing† the burdens of support. This is

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*Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1895-1896, Vol. I, p. 313.

†See Cubberley, School Funds and Their Apportionment, for an excellent review and discussion of the various methods of apportioning burdens and of distributing school funds.

accompanied by a distribution on the basis of local need and effort. In this situation the fund is vital to educational progress by virtue of the interaction it initiates between the state and the constituent local units. The permanent school funds have been an excellent basis for the first establishment of the common school systems and a universal encouragement to local efforts, even though they have not always been administered most economically.

Since the importance of establishing and conserving the permanent funds depended upon the growth of the public school idea, and further since the public, tax-supported school though recognized as superior was competing with a popular scheme of private education, it is not difficult to see why the organization, the enlargement, the distribution, and the conservation of these funds were not given reasonable consideration. Even the most ardent promoters of the public school system had no clear notion of the value of these funds for correlating and co-ordinating educational means and methods. It has been shown how the sources of the funds varied and how almost every kind of source contributed to the funds.

The size of the fund is not essentially a criterion of its effectiveness, though under normal conditions states with large productive funds would have an advantage over those with small funds in their efforts to promote a better system of common schools. However, it must be remembered that the establishment and maintenance of a permanent school fund is not a *sine qua non** of school support unless it has proved itself to be in the practical solution of the school support problem in certain states.

The significance of the establishment and development of permanent funds lies largely, therefore, in the effectiveness of the fund in securing co-operation of local units as a condition of participation in the income from the fund. What is secured by state tax is substantially the same; however, the state tax can hardly be said to have the same degree of permanency as a fund held in trust, the proceeds of which may be used for schools, and which is invested in bonds, as in Minnesota, or in other safe securities. On

*Pennsylvania accomplishes adequately the same purpose as the permanent fund by state tax and appropriation. For the year, 1908-1909, the sum of $7,262,500 was appropriated.

the other hand unless the permanent fund stimulates local effort producing effectiveness in its operation its purpose would seem to be not only partially defeated, but even detrimental to wholesome progress. And further, unless the state became more than a mere agency for the distribution of the income on the basis of recognized standards of efficiency and administration, the fund would not be a potent factor in conserving the best for the present generation nor in adding some increment for future generations.

Illustrations of Present Funds.

Among the states which furnish typical illustrations of the establishment, growth, sources, and distribution of permanent funds, a few may be cited. From a report* from the state of Minnesota from which the following is taken: "The proceeds from the sale of pine and other timber, minerals and agricultural lands, in the past year have added the following amounts to our Permanent Trust Funds:"

Permanent School Fund	$686,322.64
Permanent University Fund	$29,009.17
Internal Improvement Land Fund	5,410.67
Swamp Land Fund	372,091.88
Total	$1,092,834.36

From the same report the condition of the Permanent School Fund was found to be as follows on July 31, 1911:

Accumulations	
Sales of lands	$13,003,120.95
Amounts paid on forfeitures, Right of Way, etc.	195,135.83
Sales of timber	6,170,835.23
Mineral permit and leases	287,900.77
Royalty on iron ore	1,670,331.29
Profits on sales of bonds	361,569.94
Total	$21,688,894.01

*Communication from the Auditor's office, 1911.

Investments	
Cash in State Treasury	$ 347,885.30
Land Contracts (including $1,833,920.44 transferred internal improvement land contracts)	5,802,794.42
Bonds as follows:	
Alabama ($143,000), five per cent	140,755.00
Delaware, three per cent	4,000.00
Louisiana, four per cent	150,000.00
Massachusetts, three per cent	2,595,000.00
Massachusetts, three and one-half per cent	300,000.00
Minnesota Capitols, three and three and one-half per cent	800,000.00
Minnesota, cities, counties, townships, and school districts	9,727,029.29
Tennessee, four and one-half per cent	270,000.00
Utah, three and one-fourth per cent	100,000.00
Virginia ($1,635,000.00), three per cent	1,451,430.00
Total	$21,688,894.01

It may be added that for years, 1912, 1913, and 1914, according to the State Auditor's report, the fund has increased by $2,977,354.58, since 1911, making a total fund on Aug. 1, 1914, of $24,668,248.59.

The State of Missouri presents an interesting and valuable illustration of the administration of this fund. Sales of saline lands and accrued interest on the Surplus Revenue Deposit were the principal sources of increase for the funds for several years. In 1842 they amounted to $575,667.90. In 1859, $86,300 were appropriated, out of State funds, to the "Permanent School Fund." In 1861 the State School Funds were as follows according to the report indicated:

Missouri Bank Stock	$661,967.90
Missouri Bonds (Pacific R. R.)	20,000.00
Total	$681,967.90

In 1901 the funds had accumulated to the amount of $12,890,-758.40.* According to the report† of the present superintendent, the school funds remain about the same as in 1901 with the exception of the Township Fund which has been increased by $1,665,-490.09, and the Special District Fund which had been increased by $53,036.32. The amount on hand, 1914, is $13,758,608.14, not including Seminary or University funds.

In Texas the permanent school funds were reported in 1913 to be $83,902,167. The income from the permanent funds for the year ending August 31, 1909, was $2,555,257, more than forty-one per cent of the total school support for the year. Since 1913 there has been a reduction in the amount of permanent funds which the following report from that state for August 31, 1914, reveals:

Bonds	$18,204,363.78
Land Notes	46,067,427.58
Unsold Lands	2,771,173.55
Cash on hand	35,028.18
Total	$68,077,993.09

The figures above do not include $1,172,817 worth of railroad bonds which are invalid and which were taken into account in the figures for 1913. The figures of 1913 take into account also the county permanent school fund amounting to twelve or thirteen millions of dollars. Then, a re-valuation of land has decreased the estimate of the value of unsold land. This state is mentioned because here we find a large school fund which is just now coming to be effective in promoting a more efficient system. The State Superintendent‡ appreciated this problem, especially as related to the problem of providing the right kind of education, the best quality of education, and of extending equal opportunity for all the children of the State.

The only source of the school fund in South Dakota is the sale

*See Report of the State Superintendent, 1901, pp. 33-39.

†Personal letter, 1911.

‡The State Superintendent's Report, 1911, for the period ending Aug. 31, 1910, pp. 7, 8.

of public lands granted to the State by Congress. This fund is invested in first mortgages on real estate and in municipal and school district bonds. The growth of this common school fund is typical of the newer states which have been able to profit by the unwise administration of funds in the earlier states. The growth has been rather uniform and constant:*

1893	$1,387,210.91
1895	1,986,097.61
1897	2,024,361.55
1899	2,637,975.21
1901	3,905,931.82
1903	4,060,265.82
1905	4,638,171.72
1907	4,781,552.72
1909	6,037,212.32
1911	8,357,435.71

With the sale of the 2,456,965 acres remaining unsold, this state has a most excellent opportunity to perfect her school system through the operation of this fund; however South Dakota still distributes the income of the fund according to school population."†

Other states could be cited as expressing peculiarities of the origin, growth, and administration of these funds, such as Michigan and Tennessee where in reality the fund is a charge against the State,‡ or Delaware where the fund is increased annually by Legislative appropriation,§ or Virginia where the Literary Fund is increased by donations, and by all fines and escheats collected in the State,‖ or Arkansas where the fund will likely not increase at least for some time,†† or California where apportionment is made on the basis of number of teachers and average daily attendance.‡‡ However for our purpose the most vital function of permanent

*Report of State Superintendent.

†School Laws, 1911.

‡The State Superintendent of Tennessee says that in reality there is no such fund, rather a certificate of indebtedness.

§Report of the State Auditor.

‖Report of the State Superintendent.

††Ibid.

‡‡School Laws, 1909, pp. 133-136.

funds appears to be the effect of the funds upon the development of the state system incident to the various methods of school support already in operation, and especially in their interaction upon school support by taxation.

Taxation

The problem of securing an accurate and adequate notion of the early beginnings of taxation for schools though fascinating and valuable is often baffling and uncertain. In its beginning taxation for public schools was involved intimately and intricately with other means, and therefore the history of taxation presents a tangled web. It is unsafe to conclude that because taxation was permitted in the seventeenth century among the colonies or was made obligatory during the early half of the nineteenth century among several states, the notion of taxation was general during these early years. An adequate account of the growth of this notion would involve a discussion of the interacting influences of school support. The purpose here is rather to present certain typical and suggestive situations out of which comes a better understanding of the importance of taxation as a means of supporting schools.

Taxation was recognized clearly in the colonies, but largely as supplementary to other sources, or as a scheme of providing for the children of the poor. To overcome these notions it has required patience and time. Public sentiment had to be trained to an appreciation of the obligations resting upon all for the welfare of each. Since great spontaneity had been expressed for so long a time in private and philanthropic endeavor, it was a gradual, though inevitable, change that came to substitute the tax for the miscellaneous methods of voluntary systems. Thus the notion of taxation for schools grew out of the methods of voluntary systems when social demands showed the necessity of a reconstruction and of a dependence upon more reliable and constant sources.

With the rise of state systems the income of permanent school funds figured as an important item in the funds of school support. In this respect it seems as if taxation were an expression of effort harmonizing the two aspects of responsibility for the education of youth; the activity of the state, expressed in the growth and de-

velopment of the permanent funds, and the interest of local communities expressed in benefactions, gifts, tuition, appropriations, and so forth. Taxation has had a vital meaning in relation to both aspects of support. Each state made its own evaluations of the various available sources of support but taxation finally came to be appreciated as the backbone of such support.

The objection to taxation,—and considered a fundamental one,—that education was a private benefit and as such should be supported by those receiving the benefits, was formidable and effective for a long time and has not been fully met by popular sentiment even yet. That wealth should be taxed for the education of the children of the citizens was a principle felt to be incompatible with democracy. There is some objection to the principle in certain states and in most states there is an ultra-conservative attitude toward increasing taxation to meet the new educational demands in the modern school. The open hostility of a century ago does not surprise us when it is noted that in 1910 practically ten per cent of the revenue derived from state common school systems came from miscellaneous sources of which tuitions and private subscriptions were a large part,* and still amounts to practically seven per cent.†

Purposes of Taxation

The perpetuation of democracy in the spirit of which the spontaneity of American life was born was a fundamental purpose in the evolution of taxation. Though the notion was not appreciated by the masses the leaders were fully aware that the evils of democracy could be prevented only by a democracy of a higher order wherein the good of all became an obligation upon the states. Legislation permitting taxation for schools accords with the early notion of democracy and was sufficient until the diversity of life demanded the direction and co-ordination of the agencies of education. The general acceptance of this type of democracy‡ explains largely how certain local communities could justify the distribution of permanent funds to private teachers or why certain

*Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1910, Vol. II, p. 699.

†Ibid, 1913, Vol. II, p. 31.

‡A main argument advanced in many places yet for maintaining the district system of administration is that it is the most democratic..

communities failed to desire to participate in these funds* or why the income from permanent funds was distributed to denominational colleges and to private institutions, as district schools.

Permissive taxation by legislative act was a necessary step in the progress of tax-supported schools. The order of the General Court of Massachusetts in 1647 *permitting* taxation was effective largely because of the democracy which the Massachusetts Town Meeting expressed. In 1827, when Massachusetts realized the need of a more adequate correlation and uniformity within the state, a law† was passed *requiring* the employment of teachers in towns of fifty families, and authorizing the towns to raise by tax any amount of money they might think necessary to support the schools properly. This compulsion was a step removed from the kind of democracy exhibited in the first instance. However, compulsory taxation was a step toward a democracy of a higher order.

A second purpose illustrated in the beginnings of taxation for public education was that of increasing the support fund. It was common to found schools with considerable generosity, but to provide no adeqate support for their continued maintenance. Such neglect or indifference is still manifest. The increase of the support fund‡ which is asked for universally by school men is demanded from two directions; the adding of new departments to the system, and the extension of the term of school so that pupils may be furnished an enriched course of study. The leaders among the first settlers of Kentucky were men of more than average intelligence, and yet the public school system did not become firmly established until after 1850. This is accounted for in the fact that as early as 1800 more than thirty seminaries and academies were incorporated and in the further fact that the State established a system of county academies to each of which 6,000 acres of public lands were granted and to which after 1820 all fines and forfeitures in the several counties were appropriated. During the period of 1830 to 1850, all demoninations sought to plant colleges within the State

*See above, pp. 67, 68.

†See Am. J. Educ., Vol. 24, p. 269.

‡See report of an address by Supt. Francis G. Blair, given at San Francisco, July 1911, on Progress in Public Education. Addresses and Proceedings, N. E A., 1911, pp. 146-155.

with the result that almost all of them, unprovided with endowment funds, sought to rely mainly upon tuition fees for their support. This is the most important explanation of the checkered career of many of these colleges.*

The first effort, in 1821, to establish a system of schools in Kentucky failed but in 1825 a system of private schools was provided for by an act incorporating any group of persons not less than five, who might "choose to associate together to establish a school in their neighborhood for the sake of having their children educated - - - "† The system of academies failed, from the point of view of well-discerning men; some were taken over as high schools; some remained academies; others became colleges. The idea of a public school system was opposed by a sentiment inherited from the Mother State.‡ They were "relying on colleges, academies, and private tutors for families who could pay, and making no general provision for common schools until 1821, when a Literary Fund was established out of one-half of the clear profits of the Bank of the Commonwealth."§ By the law of 1838 a tax of two cents, which was later increased to three cents, was levied on every one hundred dollars of taxable property in the state. This was designed to "encourage" the citizens to maintain schools. The continued dependence upon rate bills prevented a rapid growth of the notion of support by taxation.

On the other hand, states with less extensive provision for education from private or philanthropic sources came to be more sympathetic with the notion of taxation. In these states pupils of poor parents were less fortunate since they were not provided for so largely by ecclesiastical or philanthropic societies. The first schools furnishing educational privileges to the children of the indigent came to be regarded as "Pauper" schools. This is due largely to the fact that the money appropriated was not adequate to make it either possible or desirable for the wealthy classes to use these schools. For example, in the State of South Carolina the earliest efforts to establish "free" schools were left to private initiative

*U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1891, No. 3, Chapter I, pp. 11-20.
†Am. J. Educ., Vol. 24, pp. 253-256.
‡Virginia.
§Am. J. Educ., Vol. 24, p. 253.

and it was the definite policy of the State to leave elementary education to the concern of private and parochial effort. Public education in spite of the handicap of public sentiment gained some recognition there.

However, the act which stigmatized public education in South Carolina was passed in 1811 when a school fund was established concerning the distribution of which it was provided that in case the fund was inadequate for all classes preference was to be given to the poor.* The act established free schools in each district and parish. The sum of three hundred dollars per annum was voted to each school and no school was to be established until the neighborhood had built the schoolhouse. In spite of the unfortunate reference to "preference being given to poor orphans and children of indigent parents" one hundred and twenty-three schools were established the first year.† The fund appropriated "was entirely absorbed by the preferred class. The rich were excluded and the schools, as far as they were independent institutions, degenerated into pauper schools."‡ An increase of appropriation failed to remedy the matter. In 1854 a demonstration of a real public school,—according with the notions of Mr. Barnard whose influence had been felt in so many states,— was made in Charleston under the direction of Hon. C. C. Memminger. As a result of this demonstration, the State provided in 1868 for a system of free public schools throughout the State for a term of at least six months in each district.‡

Caleb Mills, in his report of 1856, appeals for additional taxes that the school term might be free six months instead of three. He points out the fact that the slight increase of taxes would be practically unnoticed. He says, "We have shown from data that cannot be questioned, that more than one-half of the tax payers of this commonwealth pay on $500 and less, and more than two-thirds pay on $1000 and less. Thus it appears that an additional three months' free school would cost the aforesaid one-half of our citizens from one cent to one dollar, and that none of the above two-thirds would have to pay more than two dollars. This would

*U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1888, No. 3, pp. 111-112.
†Am. J. Educ., Vol. 24, p. 317.
‡Ibid, p. 318.

be the expense of the supplementary three months' free school to the above named portion, of tax payers - - - .* A majority of the above-described two-thirds would be subjected to the expense of from five to fifteen dollars to maintain, in a three months' subscription school, the same children that had attended the free school a like period. Either the parents' pockets or the children's intellectual culture must suffer by the failure to provide means for a six months' free school in the rural portions of the commonwealth."† This illustrates the struggle necessary to secure an increase of tax in order to maintain a free public school for a longer period. It is another step toward equalizing the burdens of school support by taxing wealth.

A third purpose is seen in the voting of the tax in order to secure participation in the income of the permanent school funds. It is evident that some states looked to the permanent school fund for a large measure of support, other states accepted the funds as an "encouragement". In either case the sentiment was reflected in terms of local history and policy. The grants of land made by Congress stimulated some states to local taxation, others only to the extent of making them use the income of the funds. Arkansas provided for the use of the school funds as early as 1836, a trustee for them having been appointed by the legislature in 1829; but as late as 1854 only forty public schools were to be found. The establishment of the tax came in the Common School Law of 1866-1867 when the inadequacy of the old methods was fully recognized. The act of 1843 provided for the support of schools from the interest on the school fund derived from the sales of land supplemented by subscriptions. An appropriation of one thousand dollars was made for the purchase of books for the use of the common schools.‡

In Iowa the school fund was always considered an "encouragement" for schools. A per capita tax was for a long time recognized as the main source of income. The evils in the Iowa system were

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*The assessment was one mill on a dollar of property, and fifty cents on the poll. Am J. Educ., Vol. 2., p. 486.

‡Fourth Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for the State of Indiana, February 11, 1856. See Am. J. Educ., Vol. 2, pp. 480-488.

‡U. S. Bureau of Educ., Crc. of Inf., 1900, No. 1, pp. 11-22.

not due to any erroneous notion held concerning the use of the permanent funds but rather to an overworking of the per capita tax against which several governors lodged vehement complaint. The attitude in Iowa was to use the fund and supplement it by subscription. The arguments against the rata system were arguments in favor of taxation; and these were similar to those of other states. To lessen the burdens of subscribers and thereby to relieve the poor was a fundamental argument against the rate system and in favor of the taxation of wealth for the support of schools. Participation in the income of the permanent school fund upon condition that local communities make a specified and definite effort in behalf of schools was a late development. Taxation was promoted when the conditions of participation in the income of permanent funds came to be imposed.

In these examples another purpose is clear, namely, that the integrity of the state demanded a lessening of the burdens of per capita taxation and the assumption of state obligation for the education of rich and poor alike. It was clear that in many instances the evils incident to the promotion of private schools were tending to disrupt the spontaneous co-operation characteristic of earlier history. Mr. Paul K. Hubbs in the Fifth Annual Report* of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for California† says: "The Superintendent has no adequate power under the existing law to check, as should be done, any sectarian bias or control exercised upon the public schools. A sectarian war is in embryo, which if not quieted at once, will, combined with other causes, produce a lingering death, slowly but surely, to popular education in this State. The rejection of well qualified teachers at one time, because of their religious faith, produces a reacting opposite extreme at another time, and the whole catalogue of sects become excited to have their own churches as school houses. This is all wrong and the result will be disastrous." It is to be noted, however, that in the same report a recommendation was made for a liberal appropriation of state money to three denominational colleges which had been established. This shows the appreciation

*January 17, 1856.

†Am. J. Educ., Vol. 2, p. 468.

usually held for the "good men of our land" who were disposed to rear these colleges. Repeated instances of this kind support our former contentions; first, that taxation was delayed by such private efforts; and second, that taxation of all wealth was essential to prevent just such evils of aggresive factional interests. It is unecessary to show that support by taxation at this time was not thought of as a possible substitute for private support but rather a supplement of private endeavor.

Methods and Means of Taxation.

The Rate System:—The acceptance of fees for the services of instruction is an old custom which, to the Egyptians, to the Greeks, to the early Christians, and to others, was extremely odious. Plato held that to teach for money was simony. It is evident that gifts constituted practically all of the sources of support of the first schools of Athens. The gift was an expression of good will. Gradually it came to be displaced by the fee. This change may be attributed to the growing complexity of social life which came to determine what constituted a proper gift. A proper gift in the light of any social group was essentially a fee. In our country the gift and benefaction supplied the wants of the teacher who was at the same time the minister of the Gospel or an apprentice who was waiting for a call to some church.

The strength and persistency of this notion of supporting schools by gift, then by fee or tuition, are due largely to the attitude of the people toward the teaching function. It was a religious function and in that sense was definitely an expresion of love and regard for youth. It was an expression of obligation. To ask even a fee meant the establishment of an objective standard of value upon what, they thought, could not be evaluated objectively.* It was from such a point of view that support was given as "encouragement", and not as a measured equivalent of service rendered.

The ideas of gift, of fee or tuition, of self assessment, of bene-

*Cf. Plato's view with the sentiment among the colonists; also note the position of Isocrates who thought that exacting fees was an expression of a lack of confidence in the recipient's character, though the recipient was compelled to trust the teacher.

faction, are but varied expressions of the same tendency. The function of these sources of support is not always fully appreciated but ample evidence is found throughout this study of the persistency of voluntary support in education even yet. To eliminate the rate-system which was a system of per capita tax meant the modification of this voluntary system, and further it became the first step preliminary to the acceptance of the notion that the education of a people *must* be supported by the income from the taxation of wealth. The idea of benevolence in education was born with the nation itself.

In Connecticut* as early as 1795, "school districts were authorized to lay a tax to build a school house and procure a site", but the expense above the income of school funds were to be met by rate. This was provided in the law of 1810. Parents paid according to the total number of days' attendance of their children. This method had been used from the organization of the Colony, but at this time it was recognized as a system. Such a scheme was quite in accord with the notion of promoting education through ecclesiastical societies, also provided for by law in 1799 and not abolished until 1856. The abolition of the system of Ecclesiastical Societies was a part of the growing tendency to shift the obligation of providing schools to the towns. Though attempts were made to regulate the rates of tuition according to the grades of schools, nothing was definitely accomplished until 1868 when the town tax was raised to such an amount that it would be unnecesary to require rates any longer.*

An analysis of the school support fund in the report of Superintendent John D. Philbrick for May, 1856, shows that by the rate system $31,839 were collected for the support of schools that year, and $13,603 were contributed by the Ecclesiastical Societies, making a total of $45,442. When it is noted that several laws had been passed prior to this time providing for taxation of wealth this seems to be a large sum. Over $70,000 were raised by the one per cent tax, and over $11,000 from local funds.

The rate system in New York was effected in the law of 1814 for the purpose of providing for the deficiency in means to pay the

*Am. J. Educ., Vol. 24, pp. 233 ff.

wages of the teachers. It was not abolished till 1849 when such deficiency was to be provided for by district tax. In Michigan rates were charged till 1869 and, as late as 1853, the amount raised in this manner approximated $38,000. At this time, provision was made for three methods of taxation, the two-mill township tax, the district tax, and the rate tax. The rate tax realized over forty-seven per cent of the income derived from these three sources *

In North Carolina it is reported† that in 1840 there were 632 subscription schools. Provision was made in the State constitution for schools whose masters were to be paid by the public so that they could teach at low prices.‡ This was compulsory provision and "paid by the public" was a significant expression.

The voluntary system in Ohio, the free schools for the poor established by constitutional act in Missouri, the payment of the tuition of the poor by the county commissioners in Pennsylvania, the proposal of the voluntary system in Virginia and in other states, illustrate the importance of voluntary schemes among the earlier settlers of the states and indicate its vital relation to taxation. In New York the progressive injustice of the rate system brought about its abolition and the substitution of local taxation. In Connecticut the attèmpts to graduate the tuition resulted finally in the abolition of the system. In all cases to give up the rate system meant to take up the tax system.

This is the struggle which went on everywhere. Though we read of early provisions for taxation for the support of schools in Iowa yet progress was slow. In 1856 Governor James W. Grimes made an appeal for the improvement of the public school system.§ In his message to the seventh General Assembly, two days before Hon. Ralph P. Lowe was installed into office, January 12, 1856, he made his last official appeal for public taxation and for the abolition of the rate system.‖ In March following, the report of a commis-

*See Review of Shearman's report in Am. J. Educ., Vol. 2, p. 510.

†See Am J. Educ., Vol. 2, pp. 527-530 for the report of Mr. C. E. Wiley, General Superintendent.

‡See Am. J. Educ., Vol. 24, p. 300.

§U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1893, No. 6, p. 27 ff.

‖"I cannot forbear repeating the opinion expressed to the General Assembly three years ago, that 'the public schools should be supported by taxation of

sion in the form of a bill became a law, among the provisions of which were the abandonment of the rate system and the substitution of a public tax for it.* Iowa had depended too long upon the rate system probably due to the abundance of private and denominational schools in the state which were supported voluntarily.

These illustrations are ample to show that there has taken place a gradual shifting from the private and philanthropic to the public and scientific schemes of support. Even yet it cannot be said that the transition has been fully made. Kentucky has already been mentioned† in this connection. Georgia, for the year, 1908-1909 had on an average 132 days of school but only 105 days were maintained from public funds, the remaining twenty-seven being provided for by subscription.‡ Many of the Southern States, backward in state systems, still co-operate in this way. The "absence of local taxation in certain states of the South outside of the cities - - - - must not be taken for evidence that the community makes no effort in its own behalf."§ Though voluntary contributions are too unstable for permanency, yet it must be recognized that they have been an effective source of revenue for the schools during these early formative days.

Participation in Income of Permanent Funds:—In the gradual shifting toward taxation, the question of the distribution of the income became a vital one. The free use of productive funds and the rate system created a tendency in many instances toward self-satisfaction, and indifference to public taxation. Connecticut presents such a situation. It is remembered that according to the act of 1810 the expenses of keeping school in the district "above the

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property, and that the present *rate* system, or *per capita* tax upon scholars, should be abolished.' I have seen no reason to change my opinion on this subject, but on the contrary, I have been every day more and more strengthened in the conviction that it is the only wise and politic method of educating the people. The *per capita* system is based upon the idea that education is a personal benefit for which those who receive it should pay. While the true theory of popular education is that it is a public benefit for which the public should pay." William Salter in the Life of James W. Grimes, p. 104.

*U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1893, No. 6, p. 27 ff.

†See above, p. 61.

‡U. S. Com. of Educ., Vol. II, 1910, p. 674.

§Ibid, p. 666.

amount of public money was apportioned according to the number of days' attendance of each person at school,"* and further that in 1820 an act was passed which called for an "appropriation of $2 upon every $1,000 of the tax list of every school society (the regular State tax for schools)", until such time as the income from the school fund amounted to $62,000. It did this the following year and began at once to work harm to the towns by relieving them of effort in behalf of their schools.†

In no other state was this danger quite so imminent since in other states there was evidence of rational schemes of safeguarding the use of this income. In Massachusetts provision was made in the school revision of 1836 that "No apportionment of the income of the school fund could be paid to any town which had not made the return required by law, or raised by taxation, for the wages of teachers only, a sum equal to one dollar for each person belonging to such town betwen the ages of 4 and 16." Seven years before, New Jersey provided by act for the first distribution of her school funds. "By this act towns were authorized to raise money to support schools by tax."‡ and were to raise a "sufficient" sum to entitle it to a share in the funds. Ten years later the towns were required "to raise a specified sum every year", though schools were not till 1871.§

It was the recommendation of a commission appointed in the State of New York in 1811 "that the interest of the school fund be divided among the different counties and towns, according to their respective population, - - - - -; that the proportions received by the respective towns be subdivided among the districts into which such shall de divided, according to the number of children in each, - - ; that each town raise by tax, annually, as much money as it shall have received from the school fund - - -."‖ This plan was adopted in the act of 1812 and the levy was made through the assessment of a county tax. Any deficiency over and above these funds was met by the rate system up to its abolition in 1849.

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*Am. J. Educ., Vol. 24, p. 234.

†Ibid.

‡Ibid, p. 290.

§Act providing for a state tax of two mills on the valuation.

‖Am. J. Educ., Vol. 24, p. 293.

Mr. Breckenridge, Superintendent of Public Instruction for Kentucky from 1847 to 1852, is reported* as saying in substance that the granting of aid to schools should be made a condition by which the patrons could be induced to continue the improvement of their schools. He favored providing only as much money as would enable the people by their own efforts to keep up the public school. This sounds like modern educational doctrine on school support. The mode of distributing the money in 1852 did not make taxation obligatory. The funds were to be raised in any manner local communities might desire. Subscription schools were popular and, as late as 1902-1903, the sum of $14,094.13 was raised by subscriptions and $16,904.47 additional by tuition and other sources,† and even in 1908-1909, $28,568.35 were raised in subscriptions and donations with $26,888.06 additional from tuition.‡ The evolution of the tax as a substitute for subscription and tuition in whole or in part has been extremely slow in Kentucky.

Illinois, according to the law of 1855, restricted the distribution of the state or local moneys to such schools as were kept for a period of at least six months and which were opened for the "equal and free instruction of all persons". In Missouri provision was made in the constitution of 1865 that no township could receive a portion of the school funds unless a three months' free school had been kept in the township.

Appropriations:—When the democracy of a people has reached its highest level the state participates both in the regulation and in the support of schools. The interaction of the factors of regulation and of support constitutes an essential condition of the state's integrity amidst the growing complexities of modern life. It has been shown that the state in assuming the obligation of direction and support seeks to prevent two main evils: first, the inefficiency and waste due to undirected or misdirected local initiative; and second, the niggardliness of certain local communities toward the

*Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, submitted by Rev. J. D. Mathews, 1856. See Am. J. Educ., Vol. 2, pp. 488-489.

†Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of Kentucky, 1901-1903, pp. 360-361.

‡Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of Kentucky, 1908-1909, pp. 153-170.

question of adequate school support. The notion of tax-supported schools illustrated in most of the colonies gradually enriched itself with the coming of differentiation and diversity in life, which freedom and independence brought.

In the Annual Report for 1855 of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for the State of New York Mr. Victor M. Rice reported $800,000 received from the State as appropriation. This amount was provided for the support of schools by the law of 1851. Two points were involved: first, "That the money should be raised by the contributions of every citizen in proportion to his property and irrespective of his location"; and, second "That it should be distributed and expended in the various districts of the State, in proportion to the result to be accomplished therein, that is, to the number of children of the age deemed suitable for primary instruction." Recent appeals for an equal apportionment of the tax burden on the basis of wealth and a more equitable distribution on the basis of need and effort echo the spirit of the New York law of 1851.

Mr. Rice* in commenting upon the law says, "It surely could not be deemed advisable to return to each county the amount raised by its own taxation to be devoted exclusively to its own schools." For this "would tend to exaggerate the disparity already sufficiently striking between the highly civilized and the comparatively rude districts." He further says in the same connection that, "The tax, being founded upon a recognized necessity, should vary with the needs it is intended to supply. These are directly appreciable by an enumeration of the children to be instructed and the ability to pay by the assessed valuation of the property. Any fixed sum is adapted to the circumstances only of a stationary State." Twenty years later, it is reported,† that the sum of $2,610,784 was raised by mill tax for the support of the common school system.

In New Jersey the income of the school fund created in 1816 was distributed under the act of 1829 on the basis of local support by tax. Though the local tax was not obligatory, it was fairly effective and was made compulsory about ten years later. How-

*Am. J. Educ., Vol. 2, p. 519.

†Am. J. Educ., Vol. 24, p. 297.

ever, in 1871, the schools were made free by a state school tax of 2 mills on the valuation.* In the report of Superintendent Philips, 1856, $80,000 were raised in New Jersey by public appropriation in addition to other taxes.

Though the North Central States have done little through the state tax, yet Michigan has come to raise a large portion of her school money in this way. In 1908-1909, an aggregate of $4,848,-130 was raised in this manner, making about forty per cent of the entire revenue. Michigan had for her first settlers a class of people known for their espousal of the principle of public education. Many of the framers of the first constitution were students and graduates of New England academies and colleges. "Young professional men of good education, allured by tales of healthy breezes or attracted by the stir and excitement of western settlement, sometimes found their way to a cabin in Michigan. - - - - -. At one time, we are told that it seemed as if all New England were on the point of moving westward."† From 1827 onward vigorous efforts were made in behalf of popular education. Taxation was provided for by the state. The tax was levied and collected through the machinery of the township. In 1853 this tax was two mills on each dollar of valuation. It must be remembered that at this time there was a district tax and that the rate system was still in operation.

These illustrations suffice to show that at a very early date definite efforts were made to disseminate learning through the agency of the state. Local taxes had received general authorization. During the past fifty years state taxes have been given a more generous reception in the sentiment of the states. Extension and enrichment of courses have called out more and more of state appropriation and tax. Only four states have no state tax at the present time, according to the 1913 report of the United States Commissioner of education.‡

Local taxes:§—Under local taxes may be included all taxation not provided for through the state directly. Sometimes the tax has

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*Am. J. Educ., Vol. 24, p. 297.

†U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1891, No. 4, p. 12.

‡South Dakota, Idaho, Oklahoma, and Oregon.

§The various reports of the American Journal of Education have been drawn upon liberally for much of the material in this section.

been levied by the county, sometimes by the township, and sometimes by the districts. Not seldom, even in this early period, was a combination of these methods used. The district tax was the first step removed from the private or philanthropic method of support. The need for a more equal distribution of the tax burden has resulted in extending the boundaries of the taxing unit, so that the wealthy may assist the less fortunate.* The next step was the township tax. It meant that the people of the township began to pool their efforts in behalf of schools. As long as the sentiment of the community permitted the assessment of the tax upon the residents of a district according to the individual advantages secured the inequalities from the standpoint of wealth were not noticed; but when the burden of school support shifted from the shoulders of the parents to the school community the inequality became objectionable.†

The first knowledge of this inequality resulted from a comparison of towns in the state with reference to state welfare, particularly concerning political and civil organization. When the inequalities appeared in these connections, they sooner or later appeared in connection with the inequalities of taxation for schools. To remedy these conditions larger taxing units were formed. The movement toward larger units of organization has been gradual and inevitable. The group of select families yielded to the district, the district to the town, the town to the county; and recent tendencies show a striking greater dependence upon the state as a taxing unit. The order given has not been followed chronologically in the states, but in general it characterizes the tendency toward large units.

The close relation of private support to public support has been pointed out. However, it may be added that donations, bequests, and endowments have found their way with the local tax into local support funds. The early attitude was to solicit donations as well as to be recipient of them. One, Henry Todd, in the State of Massachusetts gave $10,000 for a normal school to promote the training of teachers. For the instruction of juvenile offenders in the same state, Theodore Lyman provided in part by gratuity.

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*See above, p. 88.

†See Cubberley, School Funds and Their Apportionment, pp. 42-43, for illustrations of inequalities in Connecticut.

Ninety academies, or more, in the State of New York established by private enterprise were assimilated into the general system of public schools by the Union Free School Act of 1853. These illustrations are evidence of co-operation among the agencies of school support. It is our purpose to mention a few beginnings in the establishment of tax funds in the several states, to show the early appreciation of the necessity of taxing wealth for the support of education for all citizens of the state, and further to point out the expediency of providing funds by tax to supplement the efforts of the several agencies co-operating in behalf of universal education.

It has been mentioned repeatedly how the states recapitulated the methods of the colonies. Constant reference to colonial history is necessary in order to appreciate the efforts in the states. New York, in 1812, required local communities to raise by tax as much money as they had received from the school funds of the state. At first the tax was optional, but it soon became obligatory. In the abolition of the rate system in 1849, the district tax was provided to take its place. By 1854-1855, the aggregate of $691,687.94 was raised by tax for teachers' wages in the cities, villages, and union free schools. In 1872 it was reported that a sum approximating $7,000,000 was raised by local tax in the state.

The first provisions in Pennsylvania for taxation in behalf of education were made for the education of the poor. In a law passed in 1819, it was provided that the poor be assisted in supporting schools by public tax. Maine provided in her constitution, 1820, for the support of her schools at the expense of the towns, and enacted a law the following year requiring the raising of forty cents for each inhabitant. The tax was raised to fifty cents in 1853. The method of collecting the taxes was left to the local communities. The town of Newport, Rhode Island, was authorized by the special act of 1825 to raise money by tax for the support of free schools, and three years later all towns were authorized by state act to raise a maximum tax "not exceeding in any one year twice the amount received from the State."* Other special acts supplemented these so that by 1872 the sum of $309,578 was reported to have been raised by the towns and $59,722 by the districts. The amounts raised by

*Not more than $10,000 in any one year.

the towns were voted in each case by the people.

Massachusetts, from whose history we have drawn so freely, authorized all towns in 1827 to raise by tax such sums as were considered necessary for the support of schools, and in 1836, she required the people to raise a sum for teachers equal to one dollar for each person of the town between the ages of four and sixteen. This requirement was raised, in 1872, to one dollar and fifty cents for each person between five and fifteen. In 1865 no towns could receive any portion of the annual income of the state school fund unless it had raised by taxation a sum equal to three dollars for each person in the town between five and fifteen years.

New Jersey, in 1829, required the raising of a sum for school support as a condition of receiving the income from the school fund. The sum of $258,158.30 was reported to have been raised by tax as early as 1856.

In Connecticut, at the same time, the organization of the school system centered in School Societies. By the act of 1854 "the towns were required to raise by taxation a sum equal to one cent on the dollar on their grand lists - - for the support of schools and to distribute the amount to the several school societies within the towns."* Two years later, these societies were abolished and the obligation of supporting schools was transferred to the towns.

According to the constitution of the State of Georgia, 1777, schools were to be provided in each county at the general expense of the State. One thousand acres of land were given to each county for the support of free schools and one thousand pounds for the endowment of an academy in each county. These provisions initiated what is known as the "Poor School System" which took its rise in the act of July 31, 1783.† Not until 1870 was there a system of free schools. It was incorporated in the constitution that the expenses of the system should be met by taxation or otherwise.

North Carolina, in 1838, passed an act laying off the State into school districts, giving counties the privilege of deciding whether or not they cared to establish schools. "The act embraced the plan of requiring each county to raise one dollar for every two dollars distributed by the literary board." By 1841 this act was in full

*Am. J. Educ., Vol. 24, p. 236.

†U. S. Bureau of Educ., Circ. of Inf., 1888, No. 4, p. 24 ff.

operation.

In West Virginia the support of schools was provided by a capitation tax of one dollar on each male inhabitant over twenty-one years, and by a property tax of ten cents on every one hundred dollars of taxable property.

Louisiana was one of the most aggressive of the Southern States. She accumulated a large school fund which was sold at auction in the troublous times of war. The annual state appropriation of $800 to each parish, or county, was supplemented as early as 1821 by a voluntary local tax upon the property of the parish. The local tax was especially effective in New Orleans. Other South Central States followed the method of Louisiana by assuming a voluntary tax. Among these Kentucky and Tennessee may be mentioned particularly though in both of these states voluntary systems prevented the recognition of public supported education.

Among the North Central States, local taxes developed earliest; however, Michigan and Indiana have emphasized the importance of the state tax and have reported proportionally large amounts from this source. At the present time less than ten per cent of the entire revenues for school maintenance in this section of states comes from state taxes, and more that seventy-five per cent comes from local taxes. Ohio, in 1837-1838, had a county tax of two mills for the support of schools, and had provided for the erection of school buildings by district taxation. Though Indiana espoused the principle of local taxation early, yet Caleb Mills* was compelled to react strenuously against prevalent opposition to local taxation in 1856. At this time the assessment was one mill on a dollar of property and fifty cents on a poll.† Illinois enacted a local tax in 1855, Mr. Edwards* reporting in 1854, for ninety-seven counties, the receipt of $42,705 from this tax. Minnesota had a township tax by constitutional act in 1850. Michigan established a system of local taxation which was operating in 1853.

SUMMARY.

The history of the beginnings of state systems, and the evolution of methods of school support reveal a progressive reconstruction

*Superintendent of Public Instruction.

†See Am. J. Educ., Vol. 2, p. 486.

of the old colonial methods. This reconstruction was determined by the appreciation of the growing disparity between public and private schools, on the one hand, and by the demand for unanimity of action on the new problems of government, of industry, of society, and of religion, on the other.

Certain well defined steps have been pointed out to show how gradually the transition has been made from the earliest types of private support to the highest forms of tax-supported schools, now found in our democratic society. During this transition, permanent school funds were developed, the purposes, sources, and factors of which, we have shown to have been connected in a vital way with the Federal Government in the promotion of state expansion.

This consciousness of a need of progressive change in methods of school support was turned to an evaluation of the medley of methods already operating in a more or less hap-hazard manner. In this process of evaluation, the semblance of a scientific procedure was constructed in which the income of permanent funds, state taxes, local taxes, and private benefactions and fees, were recognized as essential elements. The history of school progress has made it clear that among these elements the method of taxation is the only dependable and fairly constant element. It is the backbone of school support, since it is the only method that can be depended upon to promote democracy. The only source of constant and consistent increase of school support, and the only way of realizing our national ideals is to tax the wealth of the country for the support of schools for the children of all the citizens of the country.

A STATISTICAL STUDY FOR SPECIFIC PERIODS IN THE GROWTH AND ANALYSIS OF INCOME FUNDS

"The increased cost of living and the steady increasing number and scope of educational activities have rendered it necesary that larger expenditures be made for schools than in the past; it therefore becomes imperative that all communities in the nation recognize, as many have already done, that more money must be contributed and expended for schools, both locally and by the State, if our young people are to have that kind and quality of education demanded by the times."—Declaration of the National Education Association, San Francisco, July, 1911.

Introduction.

The slow process of collecting statistics concerning the operations of state school systems is somewhat tedious and uncertain. Since each state has a public school system of its own and is not in any way controlled by Federal authority, such reports as are received through the Bureau of Education are wholly voluntary. In spite of this evident handicap, the Government has been able to do excellent service in the compilation of statistics from these voluntary sources. Though there is sufficient uniformity in the states to justify comparison, yet the student must be aware of the strong points wherein they differ in order to prevent unwarranted conclusions.

In this study the writer is fully conscious of the inadequacy of the statistics to reveal exact conditions and facts, since the statistics are never quite complete and often not entirely correct. However, certain definite tendencies in the growth, in the differentiation, and in the sources of the support funds can be pointed out with reasonable certainty. For the most part the reports of the United States Commissioner of Education have been drawn upon for the data. These have been supplemented by other reports received directly from state or city superintendents, or from other state officers. From the information received directly from states and cities it has been possible to check possible errors in the reports from the Bureau,* thus preventing inaccurate conclusions.

It is purposed to show from statistics concerning periods as long as twenty-two years, the growth and analysis of support funds, particularly to show the variety of sources and the relation of these sources in producing income, as shown in the receipts for school purposes. Various types of funds are considered: those for common schools, for secondary schools, for city systems, for normal schools, for colleges or universities, and for law, medical or theological schools.

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*No blame attaches to the Commissioner for any discrepancies which may appear, since, in addition to possible clerical errors in the office, many reports made to the office are hasty and sometimes but crude estimates.

Common School Support Funds.

Prior to 1889 statistics were hardly adequate for the purpose of this study. With that year there was the beginning of relative completeness in the report of common school funds. State systems were fairly under way throughout the country and a real education-

COMMON SCHOOL SUPPORT FUNDS

Their Growth and Analysis, 1889-1899

Table 1

Year	Permanent Funds		State Funds		Local Funds		Miscel. Funds		Total
	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1
1889	9.8	7.4	25.2	19.1	88.3	66.8	8.8	6.6	132.1
1890	7.8	5.4	26.2	18.2	97.1	67.8	12.0	8.3	143.1
1891	8.3	5.6	27.6	18.6	100.4	67.8	11.6	7.8	147.9
1892	8.1	5.1	29.7	18.9	105.6	67.3	13.4	8.5	156.8
1893	8.7	5.2	33.7	20.4	108.4	65.6	14.2	8.6	165.0
1894	8.5	5.0	33.1	19.8	111.3	66.6	14.2	8.5	167.0
1895	8.3	4.6	33.3	18.7	119.0	67.0	17.0	9.5	177.6
1896	7.6	4.1	35.3	19.4	123.2	67.9	15.2	8.3	181.4
1897	7.8	4.1	35.1	18.6	128.0	67.8	17.8	9.0	188.6
1898	9.2	4.6	35.6	17.8	134.1	67.2	20.4	10.2	199.3
1899	9.0	4.4	36.2	17.7	143.4	70.2	15.4	7.5	204.0
1900	9.1	4.1	37.9	17.2	149.5	68.0	23.2	10.5	219.8
1901	9.8	4.1	36.3	15.4	163.9	69.6	25.4	10.7	235.3
1902	10.0	4.0	39.2	15.9	173.2	70.5	23.1	9.4	245.5
1903	12.1	4.8	40.5	16.0	173.7	69.0	25.3	10.0	251.6
1904	10.2	3.6	42.6	15.2	193.2	69.2	33.2	11.8	279.1
1905	13.2	4.3	44.3	14.6	210.2	69.6	34.1	11.2	301.8
1906	11.6	3.6	47.7	14.0	223.5	69.3	39.0	12.4	322.1
1907	25.5	7.0	44.7	12.5	231.7	65.2	53.0	14.1	355.0
1908	22.4	5.8	58.1	15.2	259.3	67.8	42.1	11.0	381.9
1909	13.4	3.3	63.6	15.7	288.6	71.5	38.0	9.4	403.6
1910	14.1	3.2	64.6	14.9	312.2	72.1	42.1	9.8	433.0
1911	15.0	3.3	69.1	15.3	333.8	74.0	33.1	7.5	451.1
1912	15.2	3.2	75.8	16.2	346.9	73.9	31.1	6.6	469.1

1. In Millions of dollars. 2. Per cent of total.

al era was dawning. The uncertainty of the formative period in state systems had yielded to an educational propogandum which has gained force with the passing of the two decades. The period from 1889 to the present time affords a rich field for statistical study. Many new movements have arisen during the period, evening high schools and manual training schools being among the more significant.

If one were to glance at the table on page 98, he would first be struck with the relative consistency of each fund for the entire period. Further facts concerning these funds are seen in the table. Column 1 in each case shows the amounts of money received from each source, given in millions of dollars; column 2 shows the per cent of total receipts each source produced for that year. Owing to the rise of the tax system and the growth of permanent school funds among the states, the consistent growth and the relative importance of the miscellaneous fund is somewhat surprising. It is safe to say that since this fund is made up largely from tuition fees, since interest on moneys in the bank, receipts from the sales of property, or from other sources would never be considerable, as the reports seem to bear out. That these four sources increase in amount at an approximately even rate, is somewhat suggestive.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE HIGH SCHOOLS AND ACADEMIES

Statistics showing receipts for the support of secondary schools is still more difficult to secure than for common schools. In many cases, the accounts of public high schools are not kept separate from the general accounts of public schools, and the accounts of private academies are not always available for public report. Not until 1893, were reliable statistics on the support of secondary schools available in such form that comparisons could be made.*

In Chart I, a comparison is made between public and private secondary schools as to the five types of funds, which each receives, and also as to proportions of the grand total each receives for support. The figures at the bottom show the years covered in the comparison, those at the left side the per cent of the total fund for the

*Care should be taken in drawing conclusions from data given, particularly because the number of schools giving satisfactory reports varies from year to year. Only broad generalizations should be made.

years covered. The curve is made for the public secondary school, the reciprocal being, therefore, for the private secondary school. For example, the percentile amount of public appropriation received by public secondary schools is represented by the percentile distance of Curve A from O, and the amount received by private secondary schools through the same medium is represented by the distance of Curve A from 100.

The statistics shown in Table 2 reveal a decided tendency toward the growth and development of high schools under public control and support. The percentile number of public high schools has increased during twenty-three years from sixty-one to eighty-four per cent. The actual number of private schools has increased during the period from 1,632 in 1890 to 2,168 in 1913, and the number of public high schools from 2,526 to 11,277 during the same period. The private school has been encouraged generously by public appropriation, and even by a share in the permanent school fund. However, the amount of public appropriation for the private high schools or academies has increased from $201,000 in 1893 to $212,000 in 1913, while the amount of appropriation for public high schools has increased from $5,924,000 to $20,070,000 during the same period.

With the income of productive funds there is considerable uncertainty. The fund never seems to be constant. The public high schools received in 1895 $711,000 from productive funds, though in 1906 a sum of only $72,000 was reported. The private high schools and academies received $1,864,000 from this source in 1895, and $2,055,000 in 1908, though it fell to $706,000 in 1909, when the income from productive funds furnished less than four per cent of total receipts for secondary schools. In 1913 it came back to an aggregate of $1,831,000.

Tuitions and fees have always presented a large aggregate in the total receipts for the support of schools. The rate system which was in vogue for so long a time yielded slowly to the growing democratic sentiment of public supported schools. Though the last half of the nineteenth century has been characterized by a generous disposition to tax wealth for schools, reference in this connection relates to the elementary schools. The rise of the high school, though rapid during the last twenty-five years, has been generously supported by private endeavor, expressed in benefaction and gift or in tuition and

COMPARISON OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE HIGH SCHOOLS AS TO PARTICIPATION IN SUPPORT FUNDS

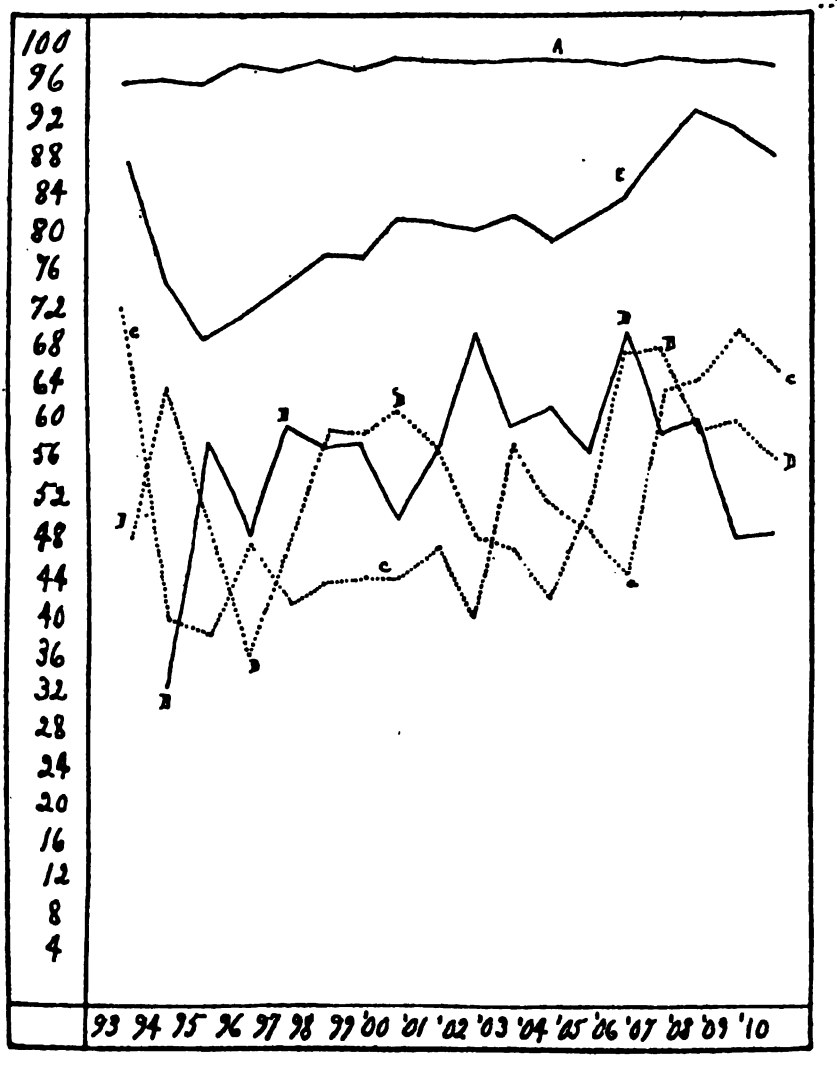

CHART I.

A—Public appropriations. B—Grand totals, not including benefactions. C—Tuitions and fees. D—Other sources. E—Income from productive funds. F—Benefactions.

fees. A glance at the table will show that even at the present time the American public high school is not fully free.

In 1893 public high schools reported receiving $616,000 from tuitions and fees. In spite of the rapidly growing sentiment in favor of publicly supported schools, the amount received from such rates amounted to $1,034,000 in 1910 and $1,147,855 in 1913. There was an increase of thirty-four schools reporting and a probable increase in attendance, which must be considered. It is clear from these figures that parents are heavy contributors to public high school support through fees and tuitions. This spirit of co-operative endeavor, it is our purpose to point out.. It is significant for consideration that for the last five or six years the receipts from tuitions and fees for public high schools have increased relatively.

Private high schools and academies have depended considerably upon tuition for their support. It has been shown in other connections that the principle of supporting schools by rate was an effective handicap to the establishment of public schools, and especially to their support by taxation.

For the period from 1893 to 1910 inclusive the amount of almost $100,000,000 has been collected for these schools in tuitions and fees alone, the maximum amount for any year of the period being reached in 1903 when it was $7,512,000, and the minimum amount in 1909 at $3,000,800. This minimum does not indicate necessarily a decline in this aspect of support, for the amount reached $5,249,000 the following year and was $7,050,561 in 1913. It is clear, however, that the fund is not constant. Dependence upon tuitions makes it impossible to administer the affairs of a school scientifically. Permanency in plan and support is recognized as essential to economy and efficiency. Tuitions and fees as the principal means of support do not guarantee this.

Miscellaneous sources are furnishing a decreasing amount relatively to the support of schools. It is not easy to analyze these funds since they are in many cases placed under this head to relieve clerks of detailed analysis. It often happens that items are counted here which should be classified under other heads. On the whole, we may say that funds coming to the treasurer from any source other than from the classified sources would be considered miscellaneous when such receipts could be used for support. Fines, licenses, special lo-

cal taxes, as the dog tax, have furnished a considerable sum which has been devoted to school support in many states. Rents on school property, or interest on moneys in the bank, sales of property, the amounts of which were turned to support funds, profits on sales of books or laboratory supplies, and so forth, have often been classified as miscellaneous. The accuracy of modern business methods has been the most effective means, perhaps, of reducing this amount to the minimum of four per cent of total receipts in 1908. Another fact to be noted as a result of our changed thought of school support is the tendency to eliminate fines, licenses, special taxes, such as the dog tax, and other unclassified items from support funds. In this connection, the table shows that public high schools illustrate the spasmodic and temporary character of this type of support. With private high schools is seems a little more consistent.

Concerning the function of benefactions, little need be said. The benefaction has been and is the source for the development of productive funds which are the basis of a scientific method of support in private schools. The rise of public free high schools makes tuitions unpopular, so that the income of productive funds and of scholarship funds becomes the principal portion of support funds of private schools. The increase of these funds must come by benefaction as history has pointed out. Benefactions serve two purposes in support, expediency and permanency. Productive funds are considered temporary and permanent according to the type of benefaction received. If a deficiency occurs in the support fund of the school benefactions are solicited to assist the school to complete the year's work. This deficit may be anticipated and thus provided for by annual or temporary endowment. Sometimes, from a decreased enrollment or a failure in productive funds* an emergency subscription is taken. This procedure is illustrated in many public high schools, in addition to being a usual procedure in private schools. In the states of the South, benefaction or subscription has oftentimes been the only means of securing a standard length of school term.

On the other hand, the benefaction adds an increment to the productive funds, only the income of which is used for support. This

*The income from productive funds has never constant. Sometimes funds have been mismanaged or lost.

is considered a permanent benefaction. Historically the importance of the benefaction of this type is fully appreciated, even though it is often spoken of as "foolish philanthropy." It is true that a strictly scientific procedure in financing public school systems will depend little if any upon the benefactions; but with the private school much dependence must be placed upon such funds if the private school is to continue. That the public high school is assuming a large part of the functions formerly performed by private academies no one questions; but that the private academy has fully served its day many do question. However, as long as the private school has a function to perform voluntary endeavor in some form or other is the only source of support.

PUBLIC SCHOOL SUPPORT IN TYPE CITIES

In order to illustrate the growth of school support in certain cities located throughout the country twenty-six cities were studied. The reports of the United States Commissioner of Education were consulted for each city covering a period of twenty-two years. These statistics were supplemented by reports of city superintendents or school clerks. It was the purpose to get statistics as complete as possible, for all the cities from 1889 to 1910 inclusive. Of the twenty-six cities studied, twenty are presented in Charts II, III and IV. The figures at the bottom show the years; those at the left, the amounts of money in thousands of dollars received for public school support.

The purpose has not been to make a comparison of cities but rather to present these cities as types for various sections of the country, for various sized cities, and for various rates of growth. Statistics for the following twenty cities are sufficiently reliable and complete to warrant some comparisons.

It is clear that the funds for the support of schools in these cities have increased exceedingly, particularly during the last ten years. The rapid rise during the past ten years is in part offset by the rapid increase in population. However, this will not account for the rapid rise of the curves for this decade. Milwaukee, for example, increased her population by 52,000 from 1900 to 1910, and her support funds by $1,142,000 for the same period, thereby raising the per capita support funds for total population from $2.42 in 1900 to $4.90 in 1910. This shows that there has been a definite enrichment

Table 3

Name of City	See Chart Number	Population 1890	1900	1910
Baltimore, Md.	III.	434,439	508,957	558,485
Birmingham, Ala.	IV.	26,188	38,415	132,685
Charleston, S. C.	IV.	54,955	55,807	58,833
Columbus, O.	IV.	88,150	125,560	181,511
Detroit, Mich.	III.	205,876	285,704	465,766
Duluth, Minn.	II.	33,115	52,969	78,466
Freeport, Ill.	IV.	10,189	13,258	17,374
Indianapolis, Ind.	II.	105,436	169,164	233,650
Kansas City, Mo.	II.	132,716	163,752	248,381
Knoxville, Tenn.	II.	22,535	32,637	36,346
Louisville, Ky.	III.	161,129	204,731	223,928
Milwaukee, Wis.	II.	204,468	285,315	373,857
New Orleans, La.	IV.	242,039	287,104	339,075
Oakland, Cal.	IV.	48,682	66,960	150,174
Pittsburg, Pa.	III.	238,617	321,616	533,905
Rochester, N. Y.	III.	133,896	162,608	218,149
Sioux City, Ia.	II.	37,806	33,111	47,828
Tacoma, Wash.	IV.	36,006	37,714	83,411
Wichita, Kan.	IV.	23,853	24,671	52,450
Wilmington, Del.	IV.	61,431	76,508	87,411

of the school courses and likewise an extension of the system.

Birmingham presents an enormous increase in population. In 1900, the population was 38,415; in 1910, 132,685, a gain of practically 200 per cent. For the same period, there was a gain of $250,000 in support funds, practically 500 per cent. The per capita amount of receipts, in 1900, was approximately $1.38; in 1910, it was $1.90. Considering the adjustment the city had to make to accommodate the vast increase in population, the case presents striking evidence of growth in amount of support funds. Similar results would be found in the case of the other cities named .

Charts II, III and IV show the enormous annual increase of support funds for twenty cities, particularly is this increase noted for the last ten years represented in the curves. In checking over the receipts for school purposes in these cities for the last three years

TYPE CITIES

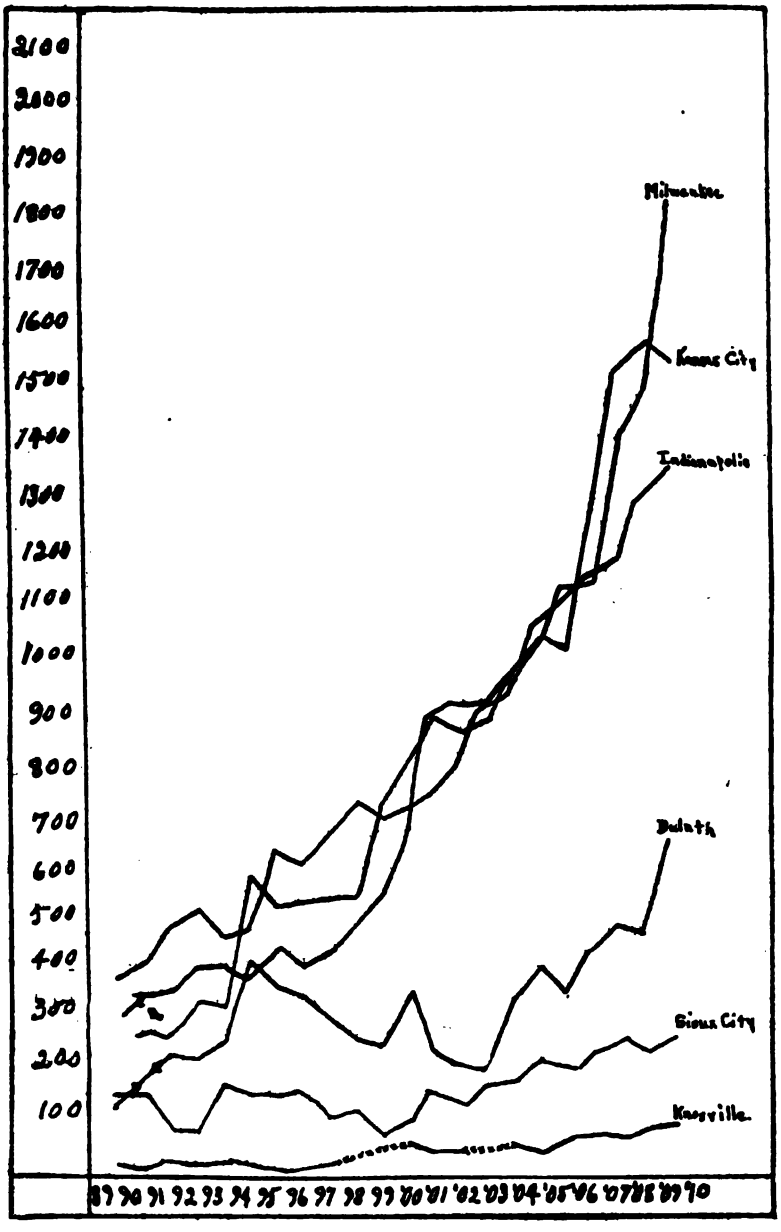

CHART II.

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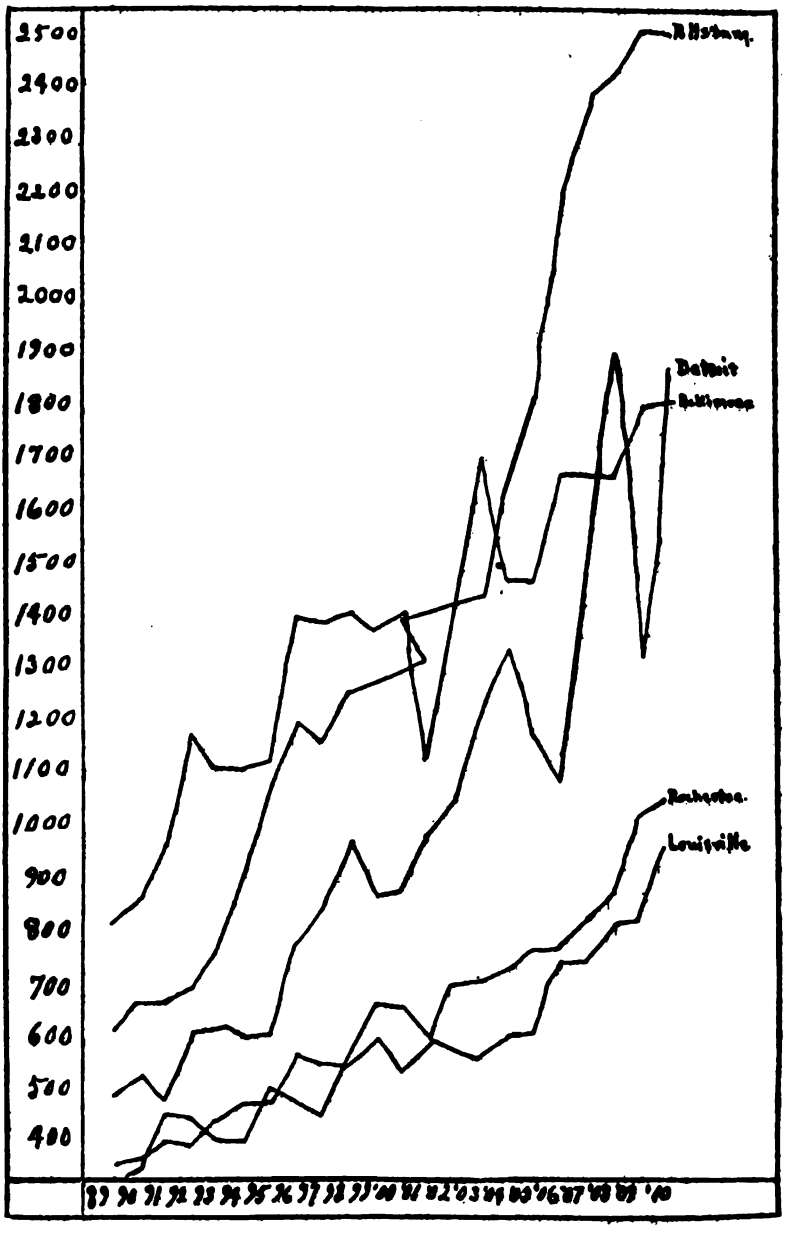

CHART III.

one observes the tendency to put more and more money into the public schools. Milwaukee, Kansas City, Indianapolis and Baltimore seem to have made the most striking advance in amount of school revenue. With very few exceptions, possibly Tacoma, Duluth and Oakland, there has been a relatively large increment of annual increase of receipts for schools. Kansas City seems to have added $100,000 annually for the past four years. For 1911, Pittsburg received practically $7,000,000 for her public school system. To show that city systems are expending enormous sums for public education, one needs only to check a few cities. For 1913 Chicago received over $15,000,000; New York, about $35,000,000; Cleveland, about $4,000,000; and Philadelphia, $8,000,000.

In order to discover the sources of the school funds in these twenty-six cities, each city was studied carefully for a period of twenty-two years with this purpose in view. In general for this purpose three sources were studied, state, local and miscellaneous. Under state source would occur the share of the income of the permanent school fund where such funds exist and moneys secured by state appropriation or tax. All moneys raised by local taxing units, county, township or district, would form the greater part of local funds. All other funds which are more or less varied and inconstant are classed as miscellaneous. It may be stated at the outset that with few exceptions miscellaneous funds are relatively insignificant as support funds, probably less than four per cent for all the cities for the entire period. Exception would have to be made perhaps for certain years in certain cities when an unusually large aggregate of miscellaneous funds appeared in the items of support from the sale of old buildings, or from the proceeds of insurance adjustments, or from other like sources.

With only two exceptions* in sixteen cities† where statistics are complete the curve showing the relative amount of local funds in the aggregate of support funds indicates a gradually increasing percentile amount raised locally. This in itself would not be so significant were it not for the fact that during this twenty-two years the

*Detroit and Louisville.

†Wichita, Sioux City, Duluth, New London, Rochester, Oakland, New Orleans, Kansas City, Wilmington, Tacoma, Milwaukee, Pittsburg, Baltimore, Detroit, Indianapolis, Louisville.

TYPE CITIES

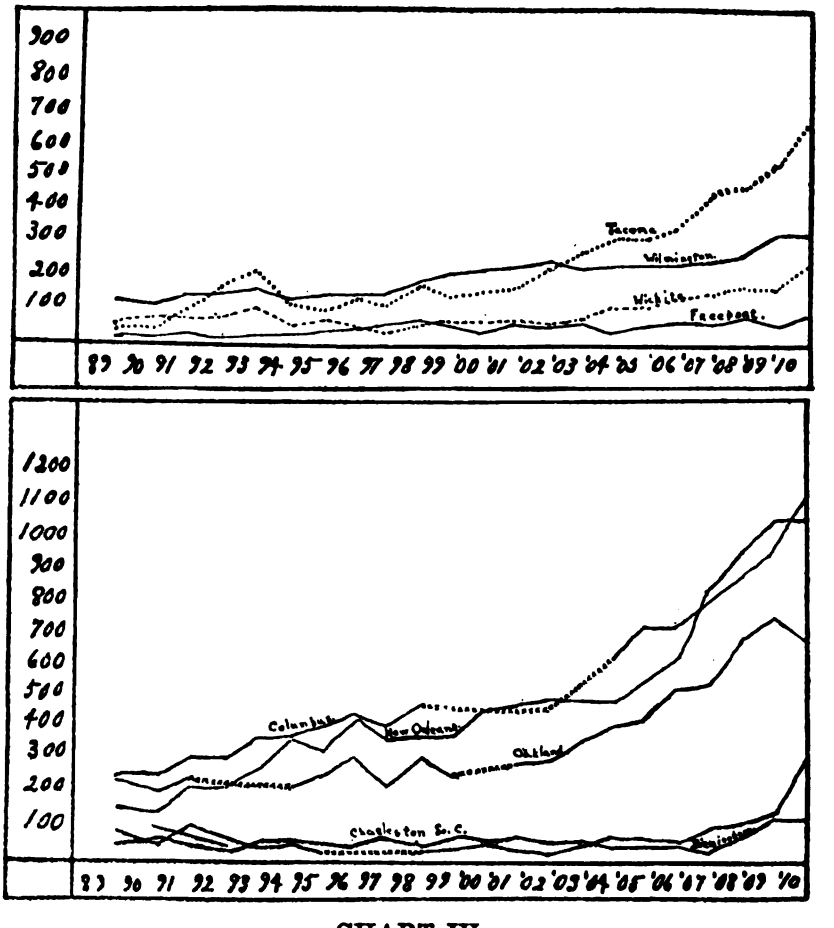

CHART IV.

income of permanent funds had increased from less than $8,000,000 to over $15,000,000, and for the further fact that state support from appropriation and tax had leaped from $25,000,000 in 1889 to nearly $76,000,000 in 1912. The argument that state assistance stimulates local effort seems proved completely as far as these cities are concerned.

With the exception of one year, Baltimore raised more than seventy-five per cent of her school moneys locally, and for the last years has reached ninety-five per cent. Kansas City has raised eighty per cent on the average by local means for over twenty years. Other cities doing practically as well are Wilmington, New Orleans, Rochester, Duluth, New London, Wichita and Sioux City. Detroit, from 1898 to 1908, secured less and less from local funds, but from that date the curve has risen sharply. Louisville only twice during the period seems to have raised more than seventy-five per cent by local means. Her average for the period is about sixty-five per cent. State and local funds shared about equally in Oakland up to about 1900 when the curve rose in favor of local support. By 1908, about seventy per cent was raised locally. In general it may be said in so far as these cities are typical, that the local source of support more than keeps pace with the rapid advance now being made in school support through state initiative.

The cities studied are located in various states and sections of the country, and on that account it would be flagrant error to conclude that one city has done well and another not so well on the basis of amount spent for education. The factors determining a proper relative amount from local or state source vary with states considered. The comparison of tax rates in these cities would reveal very likely some striking inequalities in the apportionment and distribution of tax money. There would be further interesting differences in standards and in school property evaluations.

Butterworth in his study* has demonstrated some of these inequalities. For example, in the fifteen towns located in Barnstable and Berkshire counties, in the State of Massachusetts, where the law required all towns of five hundred families to maintain high schools without special aid, twelve of these are reported as having a higher

*Butterworth, Methods of Financing Secondary Education in the United States.

local rate than the average for the State and only three are reported as having a lower rate. The average for the State was $4.23 on the $1,000 for schools and the range for these fifteen towns ran from $7.69 in Provincetown to $2.86 in Falmouth. There was an average deviation from this average in the twelve towns having higher tax rates of $1.49 and in the three towns having lower rates, an average deviation of $1.07. Our purpose in citing this illustration here is to show how any amount of money spent for schools has wider implications than the aggregate itself would at first suggest.

Another problem suggested by our study of the twenty-six cities is that of the rapid accumulation of taxable wealth in these urban centers. It has been discovered that the rise of values and the accumulation of wealth depends directly upon the promotion of learning and culture which demands increased tax burdens for our public schools. We have looked upon education very frequently as having to do primarily with principles of culture and citizenship. In the last analysis this interpretation will probably be correct, but culture and citizenship will not be divorced from the development of ability to promote the material welfare of the nation, since in a democracy education in the long run must pay for itself in promoting the material progress of the nation and at the same time leave a residuum of wealth for promoting appreciably the ideals of culture and citizenship.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE NORMAL SCHOOLS

All states by means of public tax provide for the training of teachers in public institutions. The increase of normal school attendance and the enlargement of public appropriations for normal schools are evidence of the recognized value ascribed by the public mind to this type of training. For the period from 1890 to 1909, attendance upon normal schools, whether public or private ,increased from 34,814 to 82,288 students. In addition almost 100,000 students were registered in teacher's training courses in colleges, universities, high schools and academies.*

Chart V presents for normal schools the same as Chart I for secondary schools. The point is to show how public and private normals participated in the funds which made up the total support, and

*Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1909, Vol. II, pp. 1079-1080.

COMPARISON OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE NORMAL SCHOOLS

PARTICIPATION IN SUPPORT FUNDS

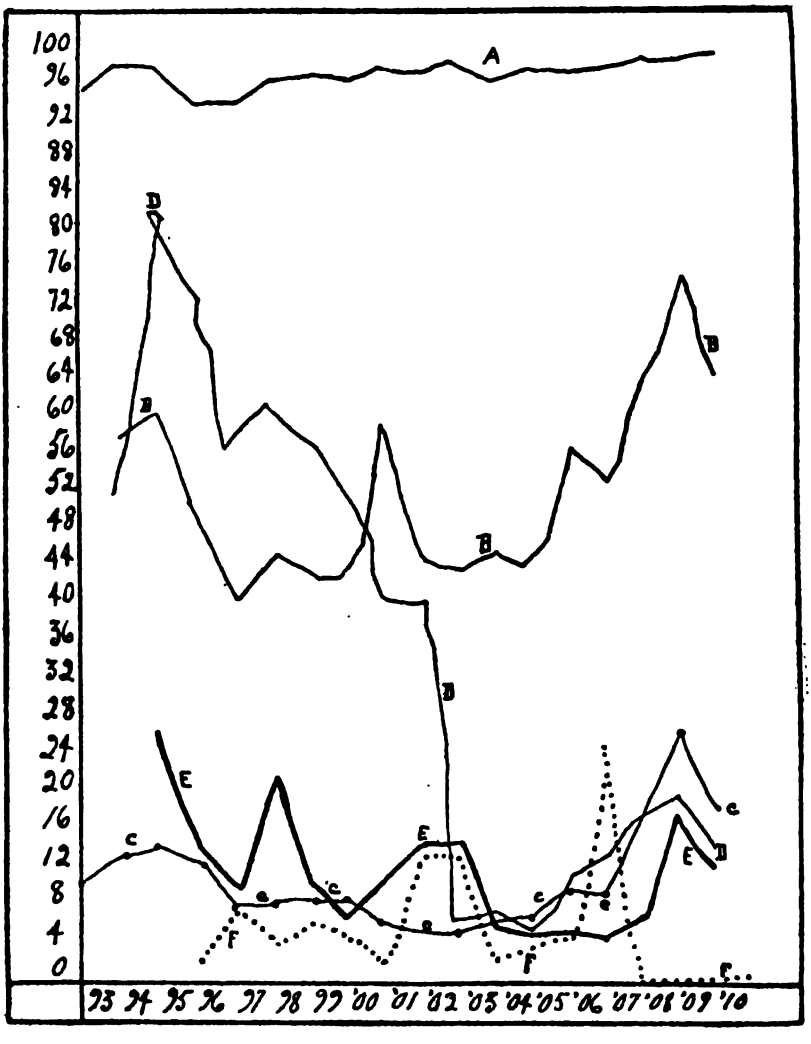

CHART V.

A—Appropriations. B—Income from productive funds. C—Tuitions and fees. D—Other sources. E—Total.

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also to show the relative amounts received by each class of normals. Public normal schools have received practically all of the public appropriations, though on income from productive funds, tuitions, and other sources, there is striking equality in the participation. Of all funds received for the support of these schools, the public normal has received eighty-two per cent, illustrated by years in Curve E.*

A glance at Table 4 shows the relation of the various funds in normal school support to each other without reference to the class of normal. It is strikingly apparent that the normal school is supported by public taxation for the most part and but incidentally by the income from productive funds. For seventeen years public appropriation has furnished seventy-four per cent of the funds. However, tuitions and fees furnish about twenty-three per cent of all receipts. The normal school is distinctly an expression of public sentiment in favor of the training of teachers at public expense. For twelve years there has been an increase of thirty-three public normal schools reporting and a decrease of sixty-three private normal schools. This shows to some degree the attitude of the public toward training schools for teachers.

The rapid increase of public appropriation for normal schools is another important fact to be noted. In 1893 the amount received from public—state or city—appropriation was $2,270,000 and in 1910 it was $9,266,000. The annual increases were consistent and adequate, the amount of the increase being due in part to extensive improvements in buildings and equipments, which were made. Like all movements which meet a fully appreciated need, the demand for buildings and equipment became vital. Of the nine millions of dollars received for the establishment and maintenance of normal schools in 1910, fully one-third was spent for buildings.

The public through state and city appropriation has paid sixty-eight per cent of all support funds in both public and private normal schools. Over sixty-seven of the sixty-eight per cent has been appropriated to public normal schools. This seems to show that

*Percentile distance from base line to curves suggests the share of fund received by public normals; the reciprocal curve, the private normal. See page 100.

public sentiment is decidedly in favor of taxing wealth for the support of training schools for the teachers of the public schools. This point is further strengthened in the fact already mentioned, that there is an annual decrease in the number of private normal schools operating.

The public normal school does not compare so favorably with the private normal, as indicated in the table, on receipts from productive funds, but productive funds have been insignificant in the establishment and development of normal schools. However, the public normal has had a consistent growth in support funds from this source for the past sixteen or seventeen years. The average annual increase from productive funds for public normals is approximately $3,000; for private normals, it is about $5,000. It must be remembered that for this period productive funds furnished only three per cent of total income for all normal schools.

The normal school, whether public or private, has depended considerably upon tuition to supplement the other support funds. The decided annual increase in the tuitions for public normals may be explained in part by the consistent increase in attendance. For the period covered the private normal has simply held her own in attendance, though she has almost doubled tuition funds in sixteen years.

The miscellaneous sources are not constant and as in other types of institutions are relatively unreliable for purposes of conclusion. One would hardly expect any consistency in them, though we note that for several years they present a relatively large per cent of the totals. With a consistent growth of the aggregate annual total of support funds, there has been a striking growth in public appropriations and in tuition funds. Especially noticeable is the striking increase of support funds for the years, 1907 to 1910 inclusive.

UNIVERSITIES, COLLEGES AND TECHNOLOGICAL SCHOOLS

A study of statistics for universities, colleges and technological schools reveals some new funds and some new relations. The attitude of society toward this type of institution differs from the attitude toward the public school and the normal school. The schools under consideration have not been thought of as local institutions.

They serve a larger constituency, and in a sense a special class. It is remembered how the people of Rhode Island in the early days of her history were inclined to leave elementary education to domestic concern, but were not only willing but anxious to assist poor students in Harvard College who were struggling to educate themselves. They did this for the sake of leadership. In supporting this type of institution, the idea of effective leadership was no doubt fundamental. The common schools, including the high schools, seek to produce a certain minimum of efficiency in the pupils, which minimum is recognized as essential to individual and social welfare; the university, college or technological school aims at specialization and a culture of a higher order, which will serve the state through effective leadership.

The greatest co-operation is illustrated in the efforts for the support of this type of institution, as Table 5 shows. The co-operative effort of these agencies have produced a long list of magnificent institutions. Reference to Chart VI shows how these various funds have co-operated, also how little each fund has varied from a common average. The United States Government has contributed to the support by land grants. The states have assumed an increasing obligation toward this type of institution, as is indicated in Curve A. Productive funds have participated to an appreciable extent in their support, but the curve is declining. The amounts received from tuition fees have held a rather constant ratio for eighteen years, though in aggregate amounts tuition fees have more than quadrupled, as Table 5 reveals. This type of institution, at least outside of state universities, must depend upon tuition fees to pay a considerable part of the moneys needed for the operation of the institutions. Curve A as pointed out presents the tendency toward public support. Benefactions have formed a generous portion of support funds of such institutions especially of colleges; however, the increase in state appropriations and the rise of state institutions, in addition to other causes, have brought about a rather constant decline in this type of support. Such benefactions as are given are more likely to find their way into the productive funds than into the general support funds.

In Table 5, these tendencies are worked out in detail. Column 1 shows amounts received from each source, given in millions of dol-

lars. Column 2 indicates the percentile relation of the fund to the total receipts. During the eighteen years considered, the amounts granted by the United States Government have increased eight-fold, due largely to the increase of income from Government grants. For the same period the appropriations by the states have increased nine-fold; the income from productive funds has increased almost three-fold; tuitions and fees, four-fold; private benefactions, three-fold; other sources, four-fold; and total, four-fold. The rise of state universities will continue to call out greater proportions from state

INCOME COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND MECHANIC ARTS

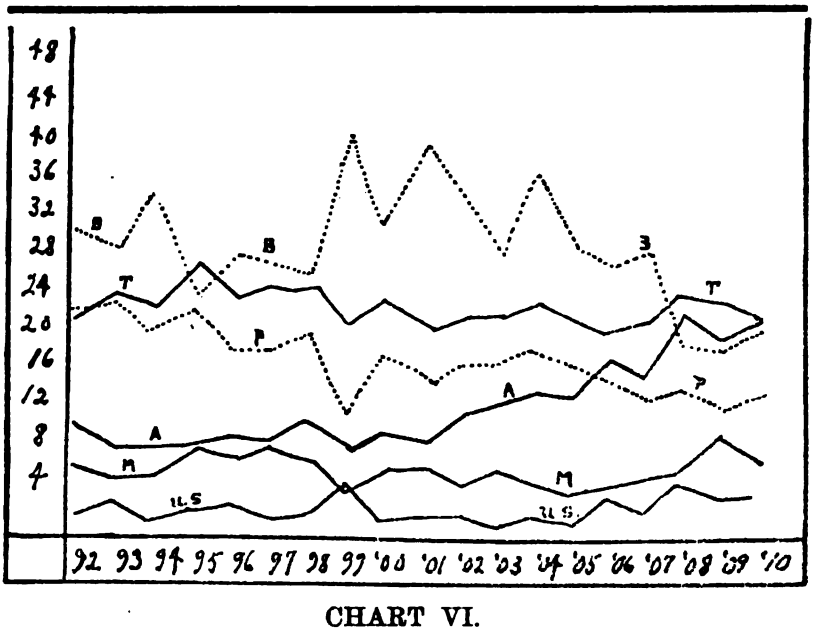

CHART VI.

A—Appropriations. B—Benefactions. P—Income from productive funds. T—Tuitions and fees. U. S.—United States Goverrnment. M—Miscellaneous sources.

UNIVERSITIES, COLLEGES, AND TECHNICAL SCHOOLS*

INCOME FUNDS

Table 5

Year	U. S Government		State Appropriations		Productive Funds		Tuitions and Fees		Private Benefactions 3		From Other Sources		Total
	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1
1892	0.6	2.9	2.3	11.1	4.9	23.7	4.8	23.2	6.5	31.4	1.5	7.2	20.7
1893	0.7	3.3	1.7	8.5	5.1	24.2	5.4	25.6	6.5	30.8	1.4	6.6	21.1
1894	0.5	2.0	2.1	8.6	5.3	21.7	5.9	24.2	9.0	36.9	1.6	6.6	24.4
1895	0.7	3.2	2.3	10.4	5.3	24.0	6.3	28.5	5.4	24.4	2.2	9.9	22.1
1896	0.9	3.4	2.8	10.6	5.2	19.7	6.7	25.4	8.3	31.5	2.3	8.7	26.3
1897	0.8	2.9	2.8	10.3	5.4	19.9	7.1	26.2	7.6	28.1	2.9	10.7	26.6
1898	0.9	3.3	3.3	12.2	5.7	21.0	7.1	26.2	7.5	27.7	2.2	8.1	26.7
1899	3.3	6.6	4.3	8.6	6.7	13.4	10.9	21.8	21.9	43.8	2.6	5.2	49.7
1900	0.9	2.7	3.4	10.5	6.1	18.9	8.4	26.0	10.8	33.4	2.0	6.2	31.7
1901	1.0	2.5	4.1	10.2	6.4	16.0	8.8	22.0	17.0	42.5	2.5	6.2	39.8
1902	1.0	2.5	5.1	12.7	7.3	18.2	9.3	23.2	14.8	37.0	2.4	6.0	40.0
1903	1.0	2.4	6.2	14.8	7.8	18.7	9.8	23.5	12.7	30.4	3.0	7.2	40.5
1904	1.1	2.6	7.0	15.8	8.1	19.4	11.3	24.7	12.3	29.5	2.8	6.7	41.6
1905	1.0	2.1	7.5	15.7	8.6	18.0	10.9	23.7	15.0	31.5	2.7	5.6	45.7
1906	2.6	4.4	11.6	19.7	9.7	16.4	13.3	22.6	16.8	28.5	3.5	5.9	57.6
1907	2.7	3.8	12.1	16.9	9.8	14.7	17.0	23.8	22.0	31.8	4.6	6.4	68.1
1908	4.5	6.6	15.5	23.0	10.5	15.6	17.2	25.6	14.2	20.1	4.8	7.1	66.8
1909	4.3	5.5	16.5	21.4	10.9	14.1	19.2	24.9	16.7	21.7	9.1	11.8	76.7
1910	4.6	5.5	19.7	23.6	11.6	14.2	19.2	23.6	18.7	22.4	6.6	8.1	80.4

1. In millions of dollars. 2. Per cent of total for the year. 3. Includes funds for increase of plant, for endowment and for current expenses.

appropriations. The large increase from this source has taken place since 1905.*

*A radical change in tabulation introduced in the report of 1910-11 makes it undesirable to bring the comparison in table 5 further than the year 1910 on the basis suggested by the form here used.

COLLEGES OF AGRICULTURE AND MECHANIC ARTS

Mention has been made of the establishment of colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts.* These institutions were founded in most states in order to meet the conditions imposed in the act of 1862.* This type of institution has always ben popular for obvious reasons, the act of 1862 having been passed on account of the persistency of favorable public opinion. Since the support of these institutions depended upon the Federal grants of land and state appropriations, a slow co-operative effort manifested itself in the early history of the movement. Considering the progress of the nation, the support fund became inadequate for the proper development of this type of institution. Congress provided for more adequate support in 1890.†

According to the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education, the receipts for the maintenance of colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts were not classified according to sources prior to 1894, and even then not fully. The relation of sources is shown in Chart VII, beginning with the year 1895, though no comparison has been illustrated in the chart for the years 1896 to 1900, inclusive, because of incomplete classification. Table 6 furnishes explanation for this incompleteness in the curves. For the period from 1896 to 1900, inclusive, benefactions, income from some productive funds, and miscellaneous receipts, seems to have been classified under tuitions and fees. The report of Federal aid for 1896 does not include support of schools for the colored, and the reports for 1906 and 1907 do not include receipts for the agricultural college of North Carolina.

Again, we have illustrated the growing importance of the state in assuming the obligation of support. It is true that the Federal Government has been very generous toward agricultural colleges. The income from this source has doubled since 1894 owing to the increase of returns from the original grants and the continuing appropriation of 1890.‡ During the same period the appropriations from state source have increased six-fold. Income from other sources has been practically stationary. The Federal Government in 1895 fur-

*See above, pp. 37-39.
†See above, pp. 46-48.
‡See above, p. 46.

INCOME OF UNIVERSITIES, COLLEGES, AND TECHNOLOGICAL SCHOOLS

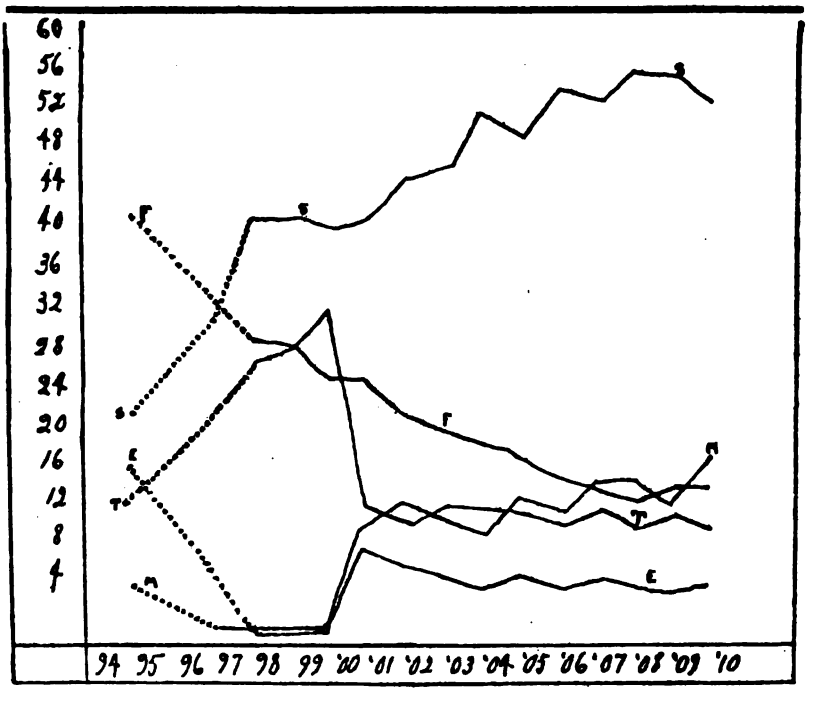

CHART VII.

F—Federal aid. S—State aid. E—Income from endowment funds. T—Tuitions and fees. M—Mescellaneous.

nished almost one-half of the support funds, but by 1910 the proportion had declined to one-seventh. For the same period the income from state sources had increased from one-fifth to more than one-half. It seems unlikely that further Federal aid will be given to the college as such, though assistance to experiment stations within these institutions will likely be increased to meet the needs which appear.

INCOME FUNDS
AGRICULTURAL AND MECHANICAL COLLEGES

Table 6

Year	Federal Aid		State Aid		Other Endowments		Tuitions and Fees		Miscellaneous Funds		Total
	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1
1894	1.5		1.9				1.9				
1895	1.7	42.5	0.9	22.5	.7	17.5	0.5	12.5	.2	5.0	4.0
1896	1.5		2.2				1.5				
1897	1.7		1.9				1.7				
1898	1.7	29.2	2.5	42.5			1.6	27.2			5.8
1899	1.8	28.8	2.6	41.6			1.8	28.8			6.2
1900	1.8	25.2	2.9	40.6			2.4	33.6			7.1
1901	1.9	25.8	3.1	42.1	.6	8.1	1.0	13.6	.8	10.8	7.3
1902	2.0	21.6	4.3	46.4	.6	6.4	1.1	11.8	1.2	12.9	9.2
1903	2.0	20.8	4.6	47.8	.6	6.2	1.2	12.5	1.1	11.4	9.6
1904	2.0	18.4	5.7	52.4	.6	5.5	1.4	12.8	1.1	10.1	10.9
1905	2.0	17.0	5.8	49.3	.7	5.9	1.5	12.7	1.7	14.4	11.7
1906	2.1	15.3	7.5	54.7	.7	5.1	1.6	11.6	1.7	12.4	13.6
1907	2.1	14.4	7.8	53.7	.7	5.5	1.8	12.4	2.1	14.4	14.5
1908	2.4	13.9	10.4	56.1	.8	4.3	1.9	10.2	2.8	15.1	18.3
1909	2.7	14.3	10.6	56.1	.8	4.2	2.2	11.6	2.4	12.7	18.6
1910	3.0	14.4	11.1	52.2	.9	4.3	2.2	10.3	3.7	17.4	20.9
1911	3.3	15.9	11.3	54.9	.7	3.7	2.4	11.8	2.8	13.6	20.6
1912	3.5	14.2	14.9	59.9	.7	3.1	2.5	10.3	3.0	12.3	24.8
1913	3.5	14.2	14.2	56.9	.9	3.9	2.6	10.7	3.5	14.2	24.9

1. Amounts given in millions of dollars.
2. Per cent of total amount received.

Other Schools.

Sufficient illustrations of types of schools have been given to show that co-operative endeavor has been the nucleus of effective progress. This co-operative endeavor has produced many sources of support, sometimes quite distinct. The tendency of the state to assume the obligation of making support funds stable and effective has been obvious. It is an expression of a fact,—already pointed out and characteristic of democratic government,—that the state must direct and support such types of educational institutions as have an effective relation with the progress of all the citizens. Only a few additional types of schools are suggested to show the shifting toward state support.

Law schools were established as private institutions in the law

offices and libraries of distinguished lawyers. In reality they were not schools. There is even yet an attitude held by intelligent people that such a place is better than the law school to acquire a thorough understanding of the law. For various reasons the eminent lawyers of today cannot take a class of students and apprentices into their offices and teach them as they were wont to do years ago. The number of law schools is on the increase. Since 1896 there has been an increase of over fifty per cent in number of schools report ing. The income of productive funds and benefactions have furnished the main source of income for the early years of the period considered. In 1910 a productive fund of $2,014,000 was reported from 114 law schools. In 1900 the total income for law schools was $482,000; in 1910 it was $1,421,000. At the present time the state is participating in the support of schools of law to a very great extent.

Schools of theology have depended primarily upon endowment funds throughout their history. There has been an increase in number of schools from 144 in 1896 to 184 in 1910. The permanent endowment funds for the same period range from $17,970,000 in 1896 to $34,504,000 in 1910. From 1900 to 1910 the total income has increased from $1,188,000 to $3,356,000. The annual expenses are supplemented rather generously by benefactions.

Colleges of medicine, though decreasing in number of institutions, have increased five-fold in endowment funds from 1899 to 1910, have doubled the income fund since 1902, and have had a ten-fold increase in benefactions since 1900. The colleges of medicine, like those of law and theology, are undergoing a change. A specific study would be necessary to analyze this change. The whole number of medical students has decreased, probably because of progressive standards. The number of schools has decreased, probably, first, because of the discontinuance of some not sufficiently endowed to meet the progressive standards, and, second, because of the consolidation of others to concentrate support funds.

It is particularly difficult to get adequate statistics of these schools. Some fail to report the amount of productive funds or their total income. It is safe to say that here as in the other institutions mentioned, the shifting in support is from the voluntary to state responsibility. In case of these three institutions, the state is

coming to direct and support, though theology presents a more puzzling problem than either law or medicine. These institutions are going through a transition with a definite tendency toward becoming state institutions.

Some Supplementary Factors.

In the statistical study which we have made, the factors of population, length of school term, increasing expenses of operation because of better buildings, equipments and teachers' salaries, relation of support funds to growing wealth, wider use of the school plant, and several others, have not been considered fundamentally, since the problem proposed has been rather to show how funds from various sources have co-operated to promote whatever school systems or types of institution have arisen and found a place in society. This failure to consider the factors is not to ignore or depreciate their significance.

The factors suggested have great significance in any comparison of annual aggregate totals of school support funds, and likewise in any analysis of funds made to discover their sources. It is impossible, however, within the range of this study to point out in any detail the directions of their significance. Two factors relating particularly to the common school system may be considered briefly, namely, population and length of school term.

Statistics show* that the percent of school population (children 5 to 18 years of age) enrolled in the public schools by years has increased but slightly more than one per cent from 1889 to 1907. Again there has been a slight decrease in the per cent of school population to the total population, showing a relative decrease, therefore, in the number of children between 5 and 18 years. In 1890, the per cent was 29.6; in 1900, it was 29.5; and in 1908, 28.3. Further, statistics show relations to population of growth in school receipts and expenditures. In 1890, the receipts for school support on the basis of per capita of school population was $7.87; in 1900, it was approximately $9.63; and in 1908, $15.52. Statistics of expenditure for public schools indicate that, in 1890, on the basis of total population, the per capita expenses were $2.24; in 1900,

*Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1908, Vol. II, p. 392, Table 6.

$2.84; in 1908, $4.27. The expenses on basis of average attendance for the same dates were, $17.23, $20.21, and $30.55, respectively.

From the time of Caleb Mills' struggle in Indiana for a longer term of school, the lengthening of the school term has been a gradual and slow process. The barrier to the extension of the period of schooling has been the increased cost of support. In certain states the extension of the term meant reliance and dependence upon voluntary subscriptions as supplementary to public funds; in other states it meant increased taxation. For a time, the former was the more popular way of extending the period of schooling. Constant progress has been made during the past twenty-five or thirty years. In 1880 the average length of the school term in the United States was 130.3 days. By 1900, 14 days had been added making 144.3 days; then, in 1908, 154.1 days are given as the average. The extension of the period of schooling together with the enrichment of the course, which logically follows, would account for a large part of the increased annual aggregate for public schools.

The relations of these two factors to the problem of the growth and analysis of funds suggest, at least, the necessity of detailed analysis for any adequate and complete survey of school funds. Our statistical study has aimed to present in general the growing importance of school support funds and the relation of sources, as observed in the statistics of specified periods. Further than this we had not intended to go.

SOME RECENT TENDENCIES
IN
EDUCATIONAL SUPPORT

The problem of developing our school finances, in the light of the perpetuity of our democratic government, is to see how our revenues are to be increased perpetually to meet the gradually increasing burdens. The problem of increasing the production of wealth is laid at the door of our public school system. That the obligation of educating the citizens of a state should rest upon the state, on the basis of wealth in the state, has a new meaning when the relation between national progress and popular education is understood.

Introduction

The twentieth century is characterized by a conscious attempt to evaluate educational tendencies and the methods of educational support. The United States has led the nations of the world in promoting education, if we consider her efforts in the light of her other national interests. Many nations, as England, France, Germany, and Russia, have tremendous expenses in maintaining the agencies of government.* This has, no doubt, affected their attitude toward their educational policies. The success of popular education in our country has resulted from the freedom given to local initiative, which taxation for the expenses of the Government has never handicapped. This is a significant relation in our National policy.

It is worth repeating that the relative proportions of expenditure for schools to expenditure for the operation of government is a vital question. Our expenses for government are comparatively low; however, it must be remembered that our public debt is increasing. Russia, with a national debt four times as large as the United States, maintains no system of free schools for the masses. That the question of school support in the United States is in the hands of the people, is a cherished fact, but the demands for moneys for the maintenance of the interests of the Government, once relatively insignificant, may soon present graver aspects. One of the important tendencies related to school expenditure is the consideration given to this ratio between the amounts spent for education and the amounts spent for interests strictly the Government's. It is clear that in a democracy this ratio and its significance must be a matter of concern in any scheme of school support.

The problem of developing our school finances, in the light of the perpetuity of our democratic government, is to see how our revenues are to be increased perpetually to meet the gradually increasing burdens in the support for the maintenance of the National Government. The problem of increasing the production of wealth is laid at the door of the public school system. That the obligation of educating the citizens of a state should rest upon the state, on the

*Schaeffer, Danger Signals from Abroad, in Report of Com. on Taxation to the National Education Association, 1905, pp. 37, 38.

basis of wealth in the state, has a new meaning when the relation between national progress and popular education is understood. If international peace, for example, were secured the enormous expenditure for navies and armies would be reduced and these moneys would be appropriated for the promotion of the pursuits of peace. Were peace to be possible only through the instrumentality of educational institutions, then the expenditure for support of these would be clearly justifiable and most economical.* Again, if the spirit of conservation were the product of scientific investigation and education, then moneys appropriated to produce a spirit antagonistic to waste and inefficiency in the use of natural resources would be granted wisely. The spread of general intelligence is fundamental to the perpetuation of our integrity as a nation.

Another tendency in the educational thought of recent years is the growing recognition of the values of various types of specialized education. The narrow course of study having the ancient languages as the backbone has yielded to specialized study to meet the needs of differentiated social functions. The realization of the need of specialized functions has involved an increasing appropriation of money. Many specialized courses of study have been added to the curriculum to this end, and even specialized institutions have found a place in the system of public-supported schools.

In the development of the school system the increase of state responsibility for the regulation, the maintenance, and the support of schools, has been pointed out repeatedly. This dependence upon the state for oversight and direction has resulted in distinct state support. The inequalities of educational opportunities, due to local conditions, can be adjusted only by the state, and even then by the state only within the reasonable limits of the state's resources. In a democracy the larger and stronger unit must protect and help the smaller. The past decade has demonstrated the necessity and ex-

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*Professor Wheeler of Yale University is reported to have said that the $200,000,000 required to maintain the navies of the world "would put a Harvard College with free tuition for all our children in every state and an industrial school as good as Tuskegee by it."

Commissioner Kendall of New Jersey says in his annual report, 1913, incidental to increased school expense, "that the tobacco bill in this country is almost as great as the bill for public education; that the bill for candy is one-fourth as great; that the bill for automobiles is one-half as great."

pediency of state support, so that the operatiou of the system of public education may result in the increased productiveness of wealth, as well as in the continued free expression of individual initiative which has always characterized our educational and national progress.

In the growth and development of the last decade a spirit of standardizing public education has arisen throughout the country. Standardization has developed as a means of securing efficient and effective participation in state funds. That is, there must be a definition of the institutions which the state proposes to assist. The state must know what a minimum standard elementary school is, what a minimum standard secondary school is, and so on. State aid is granted to institutions logically and primarily on the basis of minimum standards. Local initiative has a chance for expression in enriching schools beyond the minimum standards, by adding new courses, by improving standards of teaching, by increasing library facilities, and by providing adequate supervision and inspection. This co-operation of effort in promoting schools has dignified education as a real department of state. It took a half century and more to learn that elementary education was a logical function of the state; it has taken twenty-five years and more already to learn that the state should support specialized types of schools as well as the traditional, and yet the lesson is not fully comprehended.

The growing complexity of educational progress has demanded further an evaluation of the historical methods of support. Though in fact there have been discovered no new methods of support since the colonial days, yet there has come about not only an evaluation of the methods existing but an appreciation of a relation between these, which is understood at least reasonably well. The schools of the colonies were founded in voluntary effort and gratuitous service and for a long time were thus maintained; however, there is no need of argument to show that voluntary effort and private benefactions are uncertain and temporary, and on the whole unsubstantial sources of revenue. The preceding chapter showed that the proportion of the total receipts which such funds make is decreasing gradually. All tendencies center in the recognition of the growing importance of the state as guide, director, and even as supporter, of educational agencies.

It is important to appreciate that the rise of the state as a factor in educational support has not prevented the expression of individual initiative through voluntary contributions. The importance of the voluntary system has been shown in the statistical study presented in the foregoing chapter. This method has been effective in higher and special schools. The early American college, supported largely by voluntary effort lay close to the needs and interests of the people,—in fact it grew up out of the people. Not only did these early colleges provide buildings, teachers, and scholarships, but opportunities for labor whereby students could support themselves,—an idea inherited from the colonies.*

These private and denominational institutions have continued to grow along side of state-endowed and state-supported schools. For the year closing June 30, 1913,† there was contributed by private benefaction for universities, colleges, and technological schools for both sexes, a total of $24,651,958, an amount over $5,000,000 greater than that received from state and municipal appropriations, $9,000,000 more than the income of invested funds, $5,000,000 more than the income from fees for tuitions and other educational services. If we add to this sum the benefactions to medical colleges, the sum is increased by $1,135,562; and, the amount to schools of theology, the sum is still further increased by $2,336,510. Then the sum of $798,988 was given by individuals for buildings and current expenses of our colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts, $476,654 (1912 statistics) to public normal schools, $199,899 to private normal schools, $657,383 to private high schools and academies, $159,815 to public reformatories, $189,453 to schools of law, $12,000 to dentistry, $54,284 to schools of pharmacy. This makes an aggrebate of over $30,000,000, which does not include benefactions for many minor types of schools such as manual training high schools, business schools, and so forth, nor does it include receipts from tuitions, room-rent and board, nor the income of productive funds. Also it must be remembered that not all schools are included here, the number reporting never being complete.

Though it is generally recognized that there is much of "foolish

*Oberlin College presents an early history which is typical of the early American college.

†Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1913.

philanthropy'' in the voluntary system, and further that it is not stable, since the policy of such institutions tends to shift, according to the amounts of funds available for use, on the one hand, and according to the source of the benefaction, on the other, yet the initiative of a free people has been fairly consistent, whether in establishing and maintaining private institutions, or in promoting public institutions by taxation. The source of support for institutions can be none other than the income of wealth. The state system is in the ascendency because through it there is a stability in purpose, in plan, and in support, and a scope in function, which the voluntary system alone could never realize.

The state is able to secure increased revenues for the needs of the school in at least two directions. First, the rise of state support has resulted from a pressing need of preventing the waste incident to an unstable method of support and the inefficiency of unintelligent direction. This principle of securing increased revenue rests on the fact that a ''penny saved is a penny earned''. There are marked tendencies in modern education toward the elimination of the cumbersome and uneconomic methods of support, and the consolidation of schools wherever feasible. It is the method of larger business.

The second source of increased revenue consists in the extension of regular taxation. A glance at the tables and charts in the foregoing chapter shows that a gradually increasing per capita amount is being raised by taxation. Miscellaneous sources and funds are becoming less and less significant. Many sources of revenue, prompted by purely arbitrary motives, have in the past at times presented rather large aggregates, but the felt lack of any logical reason for placing such funds as fines, taxes on dogs, peddlers' licenses, marriage licenses, and the like, into the educational fund, has stimulated us to a more reliable and scientific precedure in financing institutions. Legitimate sources of revenue now untaxed may be added to the list of taxable wealth, so that private property may be relieved relatively.

The appreciation of the fact that education is a social investment explains the rapid growth in funds for specialized courses and specialized schools. A relatively larger amount of money is demanded as school functions differentiate. Every new development carries with it an appropriation of money. Justification for this

expenditure rests in the increased productivity of wealth resulting from this democratic type of education.

These are some of the tendencies that suggest themselves in this study. It is not purposed to evaluate them, for the task of evaluation must be left to special investigators. However, illustrations of these tendencies may be cited to indicate some present developments in educational support.

Extension of High School Funds.

General.—The standardization of elementary and secondary schools has resulted in a rather marked extension support funds. Further the extension of the scope of the high school has involved either an increase in tax levies, or a special fund. The states have provided either by state appropriation or by special tax for many specialized features of secondary education.

Tennessee passed an act in 1909* providing for a more adequate support of all grades of schools. This law provided for a general educational fund by appropriating twenty-five per cent of the gross receipts of the state to this purpose. Of this amount eight per cent was to be used as a high-school fund for the purpose of establishing and maintaining public county high schools.

Maryland also illustrates this tendency to promote high schools by special appropriation. According to the act of 1910,† provision was made for extensive assistance to the high schools of the State on the basis of pupils enrolled, teachers employed, and years of instruction given. The high schools of the State are arranged by the State board of Education in two groups, known as Group One and Group Two. Schools in the first group on conditions imposed may receive as high as $2,500 from the State toward the support of the high school; schools in the second group, on the basis of cost of instruction on account of principal, assistant, teacher, and instructor in special subjects, may receive approximately $1,500.

The special high-school tax is illustrated in the State of Tennessee where it has been the provision since 1899 to establish the County

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*Public School Laws of Tennessee, 1911, p. 76.

†The Public School Laws of Maryland as contained in Code of Public General Laws of 1904, Supplement of 1906, and the Acts of 1908 and 1910, pp. 151, 152.

High School Fund by special tax levy, not exceeding fifteen cents on all taxable property, and by special county appropriations.* Utah makes special provision for the establishment and maintenance of high schools in high school districts. A county is a high-school district unless otherwise agreed. A county may be sub-divided into two or more high school districts.† When the electors by vote favor the establishment of one or more high schools in such district then the board of education shall establish such a school and they are authorized to levy a tax on all taxable property in the district for the support of the high school, in any amount not exceeding five mills on the dollar.†

The public high school is supported, further, by the extension of its opportunities to pupils from outlying districts by means of tuition acts whereby students in corporations not offering four year high school courses may attend any such high school at the expense of the district from which he comes.

Iowa has such a tuition act.‡ The purpose of the Iowa law is to extend high school privileges to less fortunately located children. One effect however, is to increase the levy in those districts having tuition pupils in other schools. It may serve to increase the levy in the districts to which they have gone in order that the added expense these tuition pupils incur may be met. Over 7,000 tuition pupils, 6,333 of whom were in four-year accredited high schools, were reported for the first three months under the operation of the law, according to the report of the State Superintendent. The average rate of tuition charged was about $4.50 per month. South Dakota has a similar law§ though it provides for tuition only to the extent of two dollars ($2.00) per month, and that with certain limitations. Many other states have similar provisions.

Another item of expense incident to the development of consolidated, township or county high schools is that of transportation. To equalize the privileges of high school education, laws have been enacted in many states authorizing tax levies for the purpose of providing transportation. Vermont which has made provision for

*Public School Laws of Tennessee, 1911, p. 38.

†School Law of Utah, 1911, pp. 34-40.

‡See Circular No. 5, 1911, of the Department of Public Instruction, pp. 4, 5.

§The School Laws of South Dakota, 1911, p. 48.

the transportation of elementary pupils specifies in the law that the privilege of transportation on conveyances furnished elementary pupils shall not be denied to pupils of high schools.*

It is worth pointing out that high schools have been enriched in course of study and in efficiency of administration and instruction by the subscriptions of patrons and friends. It is remembered that with the establishment of public school systems in the South sufficient funds were seldom available to establish public schools, particularly high schools, outside of cities and towns. It has been the policy, in the South particularly, to subsidize private subscriptions schools already in operation. Patrons pay the difference between total cost of maintenance and the pro rata share of state money. The poor showing in the records of many states of the South is due to the fact that the results of voluntary subscriptions are not recorded. The amounts reported would be extremely small, outside of cities and towns, where there is no local taxation. To encourage local taxation Alabama passed an act appropriating $67,000 annually to encourage local taxation.† Georgia extended her school term for the year, 1909-1910, from 105 days to 132 days by means of private subscriptions. How much was subscribed for high schools it is impossible to say, but a relatively large portion of the subscription funds went to the support of high schools, since state money would be sufficient probably for elementary schools.

Special.—In addition to increased appropriations and taxes for the development of regular high schools, the last decade has produced an enthusiastic interest in special high school courses, on the one hand and special high schools, on the other. The tendency is sufficiently marked to warrant special attention.

One of the characteristic recent tendencies in the development of special high school courses is that of normal training. In 1911 Iowa passed an act "relating to the training of teachers for rural schools and making appropriations therefor". Each high school approved under the act was to receive $500 annually, provided however, that not more than $800 is paid to any one county. The sum of

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*General Laws of the State of Vermont Relating to Public Instruction, 1911, p. 31, Sec. 1014, p. 51, Sec. 4.

†General Public School Laws of Alabama, 1911. For reference to the participation of high schools in this appropriation, see page 73.

$25,000 was appropriated by the legislature of 1911 for the year ending July 1, 1912, and $50,000 annually thereafter.* The dearth of well qualified teachers for rural schools in the state has created this demand and to most minds this type of movement seems to appeal.

Kansas appropriated $75,000 for each of the years 1913 and 1914; Nebraska appropriated $125,000 for 1913-1914; Vermont $14,550, 1914; and Virginia, $15,000 for each of the last three years years; Pennsylvania provides in the act for the support of the public school and normal schools the following: For each student over seventeen years of age, who shall sign an agreement binding said student to teach in the common schools of this State two full annual terms, there shall be paid the sum of one dollar and fifty cents a week towards the payment of expenses for tuition for said students; Provided that each student in a State Normal School drawing said allowance from the State must receive regular instruction in the sciences and arts of teaching, in a special class devoted to that object, for the whole time for which the allowance is drawn, which amount shall be paid upon the warrants of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Manual training, technical, industrial, and agricultural courses, are likewise meeting with popular favor, and are strengthening the demand for increased appropriations. The increase of expenditure for normal arts is shown in Table 7, for the whole country, and for the five principal divisions, covering a period of seventeen years, 1897-1913. Table 8 gives the receipts for the same period for eight states where manual arts may be said to have had special emphasis.

This type of instruction has had an interesting beginning, illustrating the dependence of each new movement upon a variety of sources. For the year, 1885-1886, the sum of $123,950 was reported† to have been expended for manual training departments and schools, and the sum of $320,590 for industrial training in the various forms. In that report* forty-eight institutions reported. Of the forty-eight, at least thirty-six were supported wholly or in part, by benefactions in the form of bequests, private contributions, church be-

*See Circular No. 5, 1911, Department of Public Instruction, Des Moines, Iowa, pp. 2-4.

†Report of U. S. Com. of Educ., 1885-1886, pp. 597-599.

RECEIPTS FOR THE SUPPORT OF MANUAL ARTS*

Table 7

Year	North Atlantic States	South Atlantic States	South Central States	North Central States	The Western States	Total
1897	338	41		67	31	476
1898	372	49	16	109	110	655
1899	466	53	13	234	147	913
1900	350	41	32	206	137	766
1901	362	45	37	257	123	823
1902	468	53	33	478†	87	1,118
1903	590	82	33	279	116	1,100
1904	911	139	76	269	84	1,481
1905	774	147	137	365	130	1,553
1906	1,191	81	101	348	178	1,899
1907	1,538	1,004‡	276	585	215	3,618
1908	1,921	343	222	383	314	3,183
1909	2,592	444	203	434	285	3,957
1910	2,040	383	366	1,679	423	4,891
1911	3,048	1,003	549	2,484	458	7,544
1912	4,283	1,590	441	691	421	7,426
1913	2,999	1,847	500	685	553	6,584

* Amounts given in thousands of dollars.
† Incidentals to the extent of $152,464.
‡ $870,490 for permanent improvements.

nevolences, and donations. Twenty-six were supported wholly by benevolence through private and co-operative endeavor. Fifteen were supported wholly, or in part, by funds from the Government, nine being supported wholly by the Government, and six by the Government, assisted by the returns from farm products, and the labor of inmates, or by the efforts of the American Missionary Association, as at Santa Fe where the Indians received training, or by contributions and charity. Only two participated in state funds and only one, at Columbus, Mississippi, was supported wholly by state funds.

Growing out of the establishment, equipment and maintenance of special high school courses, special high schools have arisen. A

RECEIPTS FOR THE SUPPORT OF MANUAL ARTS IN CERTAIN STATES*

Table 8.

Year	Ala.	Cal.	Ill.	Mass.	Mo.	N. Y.	O.	Pa.	Total
1897		20.5	12.5	48.1	21.6	211.4	7.6	86.6	408.3
1898		54.6	24.1	55.0	7.5	15.7	8.9	146.3	312.1
1899	.9	55.8	52.8	68.9	14.1	207.0	45.1	136.6	581.2
1900	3.5	62.4	56.2	48.9	27.0	162.8	44.0	97.5	502.3
1901	.9	61.5	73.7	39.0	17.7	91.0	37.8	135.9	457.5
1902	13.2	71.3	89.7	62.3	66.5	138.7	249.4	181.8	872.9
1903	15.5	81.1	86.7	107.2	16.7	245.6	54.6	199.6	807.0
1904	14.7	40.6	73.7	148.0	68.4	494.5	48.3	194.9	1,083.1
1905	11.4	113.5	79.7	224.6	39.3	298.1	83.3	175.4	1,025.3
1906	11.6	131.9	85.5	218.5	43.0	569.2	44.3	324.7	1,428.7
1907	13.0	214.0	80.6	355.0	228.9	503.0	42.6	507.4	1,944.5
1908	21.2	239.8	48.9	742.6	57.0	574.9	72.4	504.3	2,261.1
1909	45.6	236.4	62.8	923.3	57.2	1,001.0	55.4	582.1	2,963.8
1910	177.7	290.0	268.8	581.3	276.9	726.3	799.4	586.9	3,707.3
1911	68.9	284.9	279.0	586.0	119.5	1,240.0	870.7	901.1	2,650.1
1912	144.2	379.5	396.8	727.5	125.4	1,181.9	533.3	567.7	4,056.3
1913	77.7	450.6	259.5	816.3	518.6	1,292.6	201.6	623.5	4,240.4

*Amounts given in thousands of dollars.

generous extension of special manual and industrial high schools has taken place throughout the country during the past few years. These special high schools are located, for the most part, in the more populous areas, where the demand is more pressing. Less populous areas depend upon the consolidation of the smaller units of organization for the promotion of special schools. Of this tendency, the county high schools are illustrations.

In Michigan, provision was made in 1907 for the establishment of county agricultural schools, either by single counties or by two or more jointly, for which appropriations are made by the county supervisors. Thirty-seven are in operation now. Six years before this the Wisconsin legislature authorized two schools for agricultural education, one at Menomonie and the other at Wassau.* From year to year the maximum number of such schools permitted has been raised until, according to the laws of 1911, ten such schools may be established. Kansas appropriated $25,000 for each of the last three years for agricultural high schools. Tennessee appropri-

*Wisconsin, Laws of 1901, Chap. 188, Sec. 10.

ated $40,000 for 1913 and $30,000 for 1914. Vermont and Virginia also provide for this type of school.

The support of the school in Wisconsin comes through the co-operation of the county and the state. The county must provide for necessary grounds, for necessary buildings, and for improving these from time to time. Schools meeting the requirements of the state superintendent and the dean of the college of agriculture and domestic science may be put upon an approved list, and thus be entitled to state aid. These schools receive from the state "a sum equal to two-thirds * the amount actually expended for maintaining such school during the year - - -" † This aid is conditional, but may amount in certain cases to $8,000.

Any high school in Minnesota meeting certain conditions "may be designated to maintain an agricultural and industrial department to consist of courses in agriculture, manual training and home economics". Schools thus designated shall receive state aid to an amount, "not exceeding $2,500 per year, and in addition thereto $150 per year for each associated rural district that may be associated with such state high, graded, or consolidated school - - - -." For the year ending June 30, 1911, the sum of $105,000 was appropriated for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of the act.‡

Other types of special institutions have arisen to meet local state conditions. Usually, they are supported by large units of organization, or by special funds. Combination of supporting agencies makes special schools possible, such as the high school itself, the high school with special courses, and the special high school. The large district schools illustrated in Arkansas, the country schools of agriculture and domestic science illustrated in Minnesota, Mississippi, and Wisconsin, congressional district high schools illustrated in Georgia, especially founded schools illustrated in the Dale County high school in Alabama, and a great many other schools, each requiring county, state, or local taxation for support, or a combination of these, are suggestive of some new developments.

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*Originally, the state was to bear one-half of the annual instructional expenses of the school (in no case more than $2,500), but since 1903, two-thirds.

†Law of Wisconsin Relating to Common Schools, 1911, pp. 236, 237.

‡Laws of Minnesota Relating to the Public School System, 1911, pp. 51, 52.

The evening high school is worthy of special mention, since it has become an essential educative agency in the solution of certain urgent urban problems. In a study of cities maintaining evening high schools for the period from 1901 to the present time, sixteen* were selected for special investigation. In addition to the reports of the United States Commissioner of Education, the reports of city superintendents have been drawn upon for the statistics and information used. Table 9 shows in detail the growth of the support fund of evening schools† in these sixteen cities.

SUPPORT OF EVENING SCHOOLS*
Table 9

City	1901	1903	1905	1907	1909	1911	1912
Baltimore	2.9	9.0	16.2	20.6	23.3	25.4	24.6
Boston	95.3	97.0	101.6	124.6	125.7	122.4	114.3
Chicago	58.4	102.9	132.6	119.0	142.4	172.5	*186.1*
Cincinnati	7.1	8.8	8.8	13.7	25.7	36.9	44.1
Detroit	4.7	5.5	6.3	11.7	25.6	25.4	26.6
Hartford		9.1	11.0	18.4	21.7	17.3	23.0
Indianapolis		1.4	1.9	2.2	1.8	2.6	3.4
Louisville	7.4	5.3	7.3	7.6	13.3	12.6	10.7
Lowell	15.9	19.9	24.9	20.8	24.3	21.5	22.8
New York	347.0	481.0	488.9	631.7	703.6	780.9	829.8
Philadelphia	68.7	51.1	65.6	73.7	99.0	94.6	103.9
Providence	34.9	34.6	38.7	37.3	36.8	47.3	50.0
Rochester	4.6	11.9	22.1	30.0	46.8	*46.8*	49.7
St. Louis	12.0	14.1	18.1	22.8	31.8	45.1	42.8
Scranton	9.6	8.6		10.5		*18.0*	15.0
Washington	9.0	6.5	*9.3*	12.7	17.6	*19.3*	19.3

* The figures given show amounts of money given for the support of these schools, in thousands of dollars. Amounts for 1911 were taken from city reports, the rest almost without exception from the Bureau reports. The italicized sums are for the preceding year, with the exception of Chicago, 1912, which is for 1913.

The support of evening high schools comes from the general funds usually. In many cases, no attempt is made to keep separate accounts. In the table given, figures, in a large number of cases, are for salaries only, since the machinery of the school, in buildings,

*See Table 9.

†High schools unless otherwise noted.

libraries, and so forth, are already provided for the regular sessions. It is probably true, as reports suggest, that many evening high schools were supported by voluntary effort; however, the recognition of the value of the evening classes soon made this feature a popular addition to the high school which in turn demanded special appropriations as the table indicates.

In 1910, 227 cities reported* evening schools.† In these schools there were 9,326 teachers and 374,364 pupils. The expenditure made upon 138 of the schools reporting separate funds was $1,092,000. Forty schools reported that the expenditures of evening schools were included in those of day schools. It is probable that those schools making no report of expenditures failed to keep funds separate.

As to the beginning of evening schools, it is impossible to write definitely, since they have had a gradual and somewhat slow beginning, though the opening years of the present century were marked by an extremely enthusiastic development of the evening high school. The practice of promoting evening schools dates back to the early years of the nineteenth century. Massachusetts legalized the practice in 1857 and at that time evening schools had been in operation in Boston from 1836, in New Bedford from 1848, and in Lowell from 1853. By 1880, they were fairly well established by reputation as a permanent feature of city school systems. The past decade has evidenced the most striking and effective growth in this type of school.

That the support of evening schools will continue to increase is a fact that the city school reports reveal. The rapid rise of the curve of school support in the cities suggested indicate that the schools are considered worth while. Baltimore jumps from $3,000 to $25,000 in ten years; Chicago, from $58,000 to $172,000 for a like period; New York, from $347,000 to $800,000. These suggest the place of the evening school in large urban districts. That the evening school will continue to demand larger appropriations from boards of education is evidenced in the reports. The evening school is becoming less social and more intensive. The purpose of the

*Report of U. S. Com. of Educ., 1910, Vol. II, p. 689.

†Including grades below high school.

evening school varies with urban need; as stated by the Superintendent of the St. Louis Schools it is:

1. To provide educational opportunities for those who have not completed the day school course.

2. To give special training to those who desire to become more efficient wage earners.

3. To give instruction in English to foreign speaking people.

It is observed that the continuation schools for boys and girls under sixteen in cities have relieved the scope of the work of the evening school. For example, the Director of Evening and Continuation Schools for the City of Boston, in accounting for the decrease in appropriation for evening schools, says: "The appropriation for 1914-1915 was reduced $10,000 because of the establishment of compulsory continuation schools covering the last four months of the financial year. Because of the compulsory continuation schools, children under sixteen are excluded from our evening schools." In many cities vocational training is emphasized in the evening schools. The continuation schools relieve the evening school of being responsible for the academic training of those under compulsory school age.

The increase in high school support funds by increased tax levies for public education, larger incomes from productive funds and tuitions, special county or state taxes for specialized high schools, special high school support funds, and other types of support, have arisen to meet the extension of the high schools. Small high schools seeking accredited relations, accredited high schools enriching their courses, large high schools specializing their departments, larger systems adding special high schools, have created such a demand for additional support that the problem of financing public educations has assumed great significance. This differentiation of function in the high school accounts for the enormous expenditure of public moneys for secondary education .

CITY NORMALS AND THEIR SUPPORT.

Introduction.—The city normal, as the name implies, is a training school for teachers, established, equipped and, for the most part, supported by cities. As special training courses have been introduced into high schools in many states, for the training of teachers

for the rural schools, so special courses have been established in cities for the purpose of supplying a sufficient number of assistants in the city systems. The latter scheme is an older one. The legislature of Pennsylvania gave to the comptrollers of public schools, in 1818, the power to provide a model school "for the education of children at public expense within the city and county of Philadelphia", in order to qualify teachers for schools in the State. It must be remembered that the Lancasterian system was popular at this time.* It is said that after a few years the boy monitors were supplanted by young ladies. In 1848 the model school was converted into a normal school for the purpose of qualifying young ladies for teaching.

This example shows that not only the professional training of teachers, but the solution of the problem of how to select teachers from available home material is involved in the idea of the city normal school. This problem is always a perplexing one for administrators of public school systems.

The city normal seems to have a negative and a positive function: candidates giving little promise of efficiency are to be weeded out; and those possessing essential qualities are to be directed and trained. Incidently, a basis of determining successful teachers is worked out.

In 1852, the city council of Boston established a city normal school as a part of the city public school system, the second city normal in the country. At this time there were many private academies which were giving instruction to prospective teachers, but not in the specific sense of the normal school. The private academies and private normal schools, which in a sense occupied the field, were supported from three main sources; interest on invested funds, donations, and tuitions. The public normal school or city normal school depended primarily upon public funds. By 1880, there were twenty-one city normals, probably as many as there were private normals. In 1888-1889 fifty-eight cities are reported† as having training schools and classes. These, for the most part, were connected with city high schools in cities with 4,000 inhabi-

*Report of the U. S. Com. of Educ., 1898-1899, Vol. 2, p. 2447.
†Ibid, 1888-1889, Vol. II, p. 957.

tants and over. The enrollment in these fifty-eight high schools was 838. At the present time, there are about eighty cities maintaining such schools, New York having fifteen and New Jersey, nine. It is interesting to note that twenty-one states have this class of institution.

The features of the city normal school which have elicited popular support may be stated briefly; a normal school at home, systematized training for a whole corps of teachers, longer tenure for teachers, better control on the part of the superintendent over administrative problems relating to teachers, possibility of closer supervision of teachers under training, and of the elimination of the inefficient, special direction for special work, practice teaching in typically graded schools, check upon social and political influences in appointments, and a professional training for a class provided for in no other way.

Support funds.—City training schools have arisen in various ways. The first schools were founded by the cities and supported by the cities. Provision is sometimes made in the law authorizing city boards to introduce training classes for the improvement of candidates for teacherships. Louisiana* has one city normal, located at New Orleans. New York provides for training classes and training schools, the former in academies and union free schools, the latter in city or school districts having a population of over 5,000 and employing a superintendent of schools. There were eighty-nine training classes maintained during the year, 1909-1910, at an expense of $63,657.50, from the free school fund, one dollar for each week of instruction of each pupil. For the same period, the sum of $61,342.50 was apportioned from the free school fund for the fifteen training schools.

Nebraska, according to the report of the state superintendent, has had normal training schools for five years. The state tax raised for these schools amounted to $50,000 in 1911. The city normal schools in South Dakota are supported by district tax. For several years, the St. Louis Teachers' College has carried on the work of equipping teachers, which has a wide reputation for thoroughness.

*Compilation of the Laws of Louisiana Relating to the Free Public Schools, 1905, p. 73, Sec. 73, paragraph 9.

In 1909, the sum of $24,069.35 was spent for this college; in 1910, it was $25,817.20.

In the reports of many states there is considerable confusion between the establishment of training courses in secondary schools and the establishment of training schools. The city training course is finding its place in city systems at public expense. The training schools are confined to the larger cities where the problem of supplying teachers is peculiarly difficult.

COUNTY TRAINING SCHOOLS AND THEIR SUPPORT

Another institution established for the purpose of providing teachers for the public schools is the county training school. In some states the county training school is popular. Virginia has twenty-two. Alabama reported twenty-two in 1909 and thirty-three in 1910. Wisconsin had twenty-two in 1909 and twenty-three in 1910. Wisconsin has used the county training school effectively in the development of teachers for the rural schools. Any county not having a state normal may be put on the list for a county normal, though the number is limited to twenty-six.

The county training school is founded by the county and supported from county funds which are specially provided, supplemented by state funds. Wisconsin illustrates this general tendency in the support of such schools. Counties are authoritized to provide for these schools and, as in the case of agricultural high schools, state aid is granted to the amount of two thirds of the amount actually expended for maintaining them during the year, provided the total amount so apportioned shall not exceed thirty-five hundred dollars in any school year to any one school.

FELLOWSHIP FUNDS.*

Introduction.—Repeated reference has been made to the fact that the early settlers co-operated to assist worthy young men in gaining for themselves a higher education. Whatever was donated for this purpose was given as an "encouragement". There

*The discussion in this section is based upon replies received to a questionnaire, supplemented by statements in catalogues. Replies were received from forty-three institutions, most of which encouraged the establishment and development of such funds.

seemed to be no disposition to give students their support outright, rather they preferred to give them the opportunity to keep themselves in school.* To this end, farms were established and equipped in connection with the schools. Gifts of land, machinery, horses, cows, and even of slaves, were made so that pupils might have a means of making a living. In addition to the college farms, scholarships were provided for worthy students by individual colonies, benevolent societies, and sometimes by mother countries. Rhode Island† furnishes an example of how parents and the colonies in general sought the welfare of students who were pursuing advanced courses in Harvard College.‡ Connecticut, in 1644, provided for the assessment of one peck of wheat, or its equivalent, upon all families for the support of poor students in Harvard.

During the rise of state systems, the notion of such assistance has received a relatively insignificant amount of attention. Among the recent and definite movements which recognize this principle is the rapid development of fellowship funds in colleges and universities. The important effects of such provisions are many and varied. The development of fellowship funds is tending directly to level upward the standards of the teaching profession, on the one hand, and indirectly to enrich the course of study, on the other. It is the purpose here to indicate certain features of this development.

Purpose of the funds.—There is a unanimity of purpose among institutions in their development of fellowship funds; however, these funds have been administered in many and varied ways. This purpose has a three-fold meaning, judging from the replies received: the assistance of worthy students, the promotion of study and research, and the building up of the institutions. In all institutions there is a sense of obligation felt for the needy and worthy students. The second aspect is clearly expressed by President G. Stanley Hall when he says that the purpose of fellowship funds is, "to free men of unusual promise from financial worries regarding self support that they might give their entire time to the subject of their choice". Then, there has been a tendency among many institutions to look upon the fellow as a cheap assistant, a kind of

*See above, page 19.
†See above, pp. 10, 11.
‡Ibid.

apprentice, who is willing to spend a year or two instructing or assisting on part time in order to have the opportunity of getting some preparation for teaching positions.

It is stated concerning Johns Hopkins University* that "The system of fellowship was instituted for the purpose of affording to young men of talent from any place an opportunity of continuing their studies in Johns Hopkins University, while looking forward to positions as professors, teachers, and investigators, or to other literary and scientific vocations." It is clear that the purpose of the fellowship is to help worthy students so that they may become research students and at the same time enhance and influence of the institution offering the opportunity. From the time when Connecticut Colony assessed the peck of wheat, or when Viriginia in 1718 appropriated one thousand pounds for the education of ingenious scholars or when Hon. Ker Boyce gave $33,000 to endow eight scholarships in the College of Charleston, down to the establishment of the largest research fellowship of the present time, the idea of producing a high type of leadership has been clearly in mind. The purposes in the various institutions, as presented in the answers, may be presented in detail under the three heads mentioned. The following quotations illustrate the first aspect of the problem: to assist promising young men—to encourage a class of students who give particular promise as investigators or teachers—to free men of unusual promise from financial worries regarding self support—to aid needy capable students to go on to research—to enable students to pursue graduate studies—to enable promising students to remain after bachelor graduation for advanced study—to help meritorious students—to enable students of distinction to spend their time in studies which did not hold out an immediate prospect of remuneration. It is clear that these expressions are partial and involve a more far-reaching meaning.

In the second place, the importance of study and research is fully appreciated by most institutions. The notion that the school must aim at social service brings the promotion of study and research into distinct prominence. This aspect is expressed as follows: to assist promising young men for the most advanced study—

*The Johns Hopkins University Register, 1910-11, p. 218.

to enable students to pursue graduate study—they are for the encouragement of purely graduate study—to encourage a class of students who give particular promise as investigators or teachers—to encourage advanced work and research—to free men - - - that they might give their entire time to the subject of their choice—to hold every fellow to some original work, to see him every few days and prod him that he do it and do it well— to discourage his undertaking anything else outside, such as teaching, marking papers, doing outside work so that he may give his entire time to his subject—the idea was to train some young men that would be available for teachers for the college, if needed—to afford to young men of talent from any place an opportunity of continuing their studies - - - - while looking forward to positions as professors, teachers and investigators, or to other literary and scientific vocations—for the encouragement of advanced study and research—to encourage advanced study on the part of a few more brilliant students—to train certain persons for teaching—the design is to secure more thorough and extended scholarship than can be obtained in the time usually alloted academic instruction— to enable students of distinction to spend their time in studies which did not hold out an immediate prospect of remuneration.

Not a few institutions emphasize the value which the institutions themselves get from the use of such funds. The development of the graduate college has been an object of concern. Only one instance, Bowdoin College, was found where fellowships were given by donors to graduates of the college in order that they might study elsewhere. There is a tendency to develop the graduate college in this way as the following quotations imply: the university fellowships were established to promote the graduate school at Blank—we call assistant positions, $100 to $400, leading fellowships or scholarships—we have a number of teaching fellowships - -, that is to say, a senior or a graduate student will be employed as assistant in a laboratory or as instructor in the academy, and for such service receive an allowance—eight graduates are employed to teach or assist professors in different departments and they take graduate courses of study—fellows chosen from the graduates of the university as assistants to the professors the purpose was and is the double one of providing assistance at a reasonable cost, and - - - to

increase graduate work, to secure a small amount of assistance for a small amount of money—it is deemed essential to the development of the graduate school that the number of these fellowships should be largely increased—to assist professors—he (the fellow) is expected to give instruction in the university for not more than two hours per day.

Types of fellowships.—There has been a gradual differentiation of the fellowship. It seems clearly within the truth to say that the original idea in such funds was to provide for intelligent leadership. In colonial days it meant first of all to be a preacher or a teacher; at the present time, leadership is specialized and because of this fact, encouragement has been extended to varied fields of study. Among the institutions considered, five or six distinct types have developed in connection with their growth and development. There are teaching fellowships, university fellowships for advanced study, industrial fellowships, assistant fellowships, honorary, and special.*

The teaching fellowship and the assistant fellowship are similar in function, the difference lying in the fact that in addition to teaching as assistant fellow renders a variety of service in the department with which he is connected. He may or may not teach. In one institution the teaching fellow receives from $100 to $350 per year and may not even be a graduate student. He is employed as assistant in a laboratory course or instructor in the academy. He carries graduate work in connection with the assistantship, if a graduate student. In another institution, eight graduates are employed to teach or assist in different departments and receive $300 a year from the general funds of the university. In other institutions, they are assistants to the professors, marking papers, acting as department librarians, and doing miscellaneous and routine work. In one institution, it was specified that the assistant fellows had only half of their time for graduate work, the other half being devoted "to assistance in the department of his major work,—that is, he teaches eight hours a week and has the remainder

*Wisconsin has what is called Working Fellowships, $600 for eleven months' service. Fellows are appointed by the Civil Service Commission of the State, in Transportation, Taxation, Insurance, and Labor. Half of time is to be used in graduate study in the University.

of his time at his disposal''.*

The oldest type of teaching fellowship was hardly a teaching fellowship in the sense we understand the term at the present time. The purpose here was to give the student who expected to teach an opportunity to continue his advanced study a little longer. The improvement of the student in efficiency to do social service as a teacher was the justification and motive for supporting him. The difference between this fellowship and the university fellowship consists only in the limitation to teaching. Many institutions, particularly the private or philanthropic, support this fellowship in order to prepare their brighter and more worthy students for teaching positions in the college or university. This type of fellowship has lost its identity, practically, by the development of the university fellowship.

The university fellowship is of comparatively recent origin. It is founded upon the broad spirit of the university and its purpose is liberally interpreted. It is confined to no particular group, but aims to promote research in all possible directions. Very few institutions had what may be called properly university fellowships prior to 1890. Since the opening of the new century the tendency toward establishing such funds has become marked.† Prior to the establishment of university fellowships, there was a large number of miscellaneous fellowships in private institutions.

The industrial fellowship represents, for the most part, private endeavor. Within the last few years, the establishment of such fellowships has been brought to the attention of individuals and business concerns. In order that the great institutions of learning may serve the interests of the people better, philanthropic and business concerns have come to co-operate with the schools.

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*Quoted from correspondent.

†University fellowships have been established in the following institutions on the dates named: Princeton, 1873; Johns Hopkins, 1876; Cornell, 1884; Wisconsin, 1888; Clark 1889; Brown, 1892; Columbia, 1892; Illinois, 1892; Pennsylvania, 1895; Ohio State, 1897; Nebraska, 1898; Iowa, 1900; Northwestern, 1900; Kansas, 1901; Chicago, 1902; Missouri, 1903; Utah, 1908; Washington, 1908; California, 1910; Indiana, 1910; Michigan, 1910; Minnesota, 1910; North Dakota, 1910; Pittsburg, 1911. Several institutions as Leland Stanford Junior and South Dakota are agitating the question at the present time.

Graduate instruction is expensive. To secure direction and able students, moneys are granted for fellowship funds for specific purposes. During the past four or five years, industrial fellowships have been maintained in Cornell University, where graduate students have taken up specific, scientific problems of interest to the business concerns furnishing the money. According to reports from that institution, the sum of $1,647.28, was spent during the year 1909-1910 for industrial fellowships, and $6,278.90 in 1910-1911, the money coming wholly from business concerns.

In the University of Kansas, fifteen fellowships in industrial chemistry have been established, supported on a private foundation. In North Dakota, there is one industrial fellowship, supported from the general funds of the university. In many of the larger institutions, a large number of fellowships established on private foundations are essentially industrial fellowships. In some institutions research fellowships are likewise industrial. This growth in a few institutions indicates a direction for the wise expenditure of money from philanthropic sources. The services of educational institutions are at the disposal of society, and society may well extend the serviceableness of the institutions by wisely directed philanthropic benefaction.

The honorary fellowship hardly concerns us here, since it carries no stipend, as a rule. The John Harvard fellowship in Harvard University, where the distinction is the sole reward, is an illustration. Nebraska offers honorary fellowships without stipend; other institutions do the same.

Under special fellowships may be given a long list of miscellaneous fellowships. Practically without exception support comes through private benefactions, bequests, or endowment. In many of the larger and older institutions these funds were the forerunner of the regular university fellowship funds. Similar to industrial fellowship funds, they are given with specific direction as to their use. Among an exceedingly long list of such fellowships, a few examples will suffice to show the nature and function.

Columbia University has a large number of special fellowships: the Adams research fellowship, $1250; Tyndall, $648; Drisler, $650; Garth, income of $16,250; and ten or more others in addition to twelve university fellowships. Cornell University reports show

that for the year, 1909-1910, the sum of $11,516.65 was received for fellowships from endowment funds set aside for this purpose. In 1910-1911, the sum received was $10,950. Harvard University has the large Sheldon funds, amounting to over $10,000 in income. Johns Hopkins has the "Bruce" fellowship at $400 and tuition fees, the "Raynor" at $400 and tuition fees, the "Rogers" at $500 and tuition fees, these amounts coming from a private endowment fund of $10,000. Indiana has two private fellowships, the "Donaldson" in zoology at $500, the "Lawrence" in astronomy at $600 and traveling expenses and furnished room at the observatory. Kansas has a fellowship in entomology; in 1910, supported by private donor, in 1911, taken over by the state. New York University has the Ottendorfer Memorial Fellowship which carries a stipend of $800 with an allowance of $100 additional for books.

In addition, we may mention the "Robinson" fellowship in engineering at Ohio State University valued at $500; the "Harrison" fellowships at $500 each and $100 additional for equipment and the "Tyndale" at $500 and tuition at the University of Pennsylvania; the "John Harding", "Jacobus", "Harvard" fellowship in chemistry, "Gordon Macdonald" and several others at Princeton; the "Col. E. A. Wall" fellowship at the University of Utah; "Vanderbilt", "Mason" and "Rives" at the University of Virginia; and the "Adams" and "Taylor" and "The Albert Markham Memorial Graduate Travelling" fellowships at Wisconsin. These funds stand as a monument to the interest of well wishing supporters of the colleges and universities whose interests settled particularly in some special subjects.

Sources of Support.—There are three main sources of support for fellowship funds. The oldest method of providing funds is the donation. The special fellowships are the expression of private munificence for research and specialized leadership. With the rise and development of institutions, the temporary and unstable gift or benefaction, given for support of students, yielded to the development of endowment funds, which in most instances characterized the type of support maintaining the special fellowships. This is the second means of support. With either of these methods there was considerable uncertainty, lack of definite organization and oftentimes lack of symmetry in the development of the funds. The

FELLOWSHIP FUNDS IN TYPICAL UNIVERSITIES

Table 10

SECTION 1

	Chicago	Illinois	Kansas	Missouri	North-western	Wis-consin	Yale*
1900	23,337	2,400					2,000
1901	23,040	2,400	1,000		1,200		2,000
1902	24,310	2,400	1,000	2,000	1,800	5,200	2,000
1903	25,307	7,400	1,600	2,000	1,800	5,200	2,000
1904	24,300	7,400	1,935	2,000	1,800	5,200	2,000
1905	23,000	7,400	2,365	2,000	1,800	5,200	2,000
1906	25,115	7,400	2,365	2,000	1,800	5,600	2,000
1907	23,625	25,000	2,365	2,000	1,800	6,000	2,000
1908	21,273	27,400	2,365	2,000	1,800	6,400	2,000
1909	22,594	27,400	3,445	2,000	1,800	7,200	2,000
1910	23,600	27,400	16,656	2,000	3,000	8,700	2,000
1911	24,760	27,400	18,996	2,500	3,000	8,700	2,000

*Approximately

SECTION 2

	Cali-fornia	Iowa	Mich-igan	Minne-sota	North Dakota	Pitts-burg	Utah	Wash-ington
1905		900						
1906		1,575						
1907		1,350						4,950
1908		1,125						6,750
1909		1,125					600	4,950
1910	4,000	2,250	3,000	1,000	1,800	2,500	1,200	8,100
1911	4,000	1,700	3,000	2,500	1,800	2,500	1,200	5,400

rise of university fellowships and the appropriation from general funds for specific purposes have resulted in certain uniform and scientific standards for the administration of the fellowships. Thus, it is clear that a co-operation, similar to the co-operation in general school support funds, has manifested itself in the development of these funds. Gifts, benefactions, endowments, appropriations from the general funds and legislative appropriation constitute the main source of support.

Growth of the Funds.—A glance at Table 10 will show the growth of fellowship funds in a few typical institutions. It would be inacurate to draw any conclusion on the basis of an absolute comparison of figures, since such conclusions would need to be modified by supplementary facts, two of which being the type of fellowship given and the source of the funds. For example, the University of the State of Washington has "assistant" fellowships. The gradu-

ate student teaches half of his time and is paid from the regular faculty funds. This feature of the development of the funds in Washington is further shown in the lack of uniformity in the amount of annual appropriation.*

It would be unfair to think that the funds at Washington approximated the funds at Wisconsin in 1910,† since Wisconsin during that year granted sixteen university fellowships at $400 each in Letters and Sciences, two at $400 in the College of Engineering, two at $400 in College of Agriculture, six at $250 in Training of Teachers, where the purpose was primarily the promotion of higher scholarship and research, while at Washington the $8,100 was spent on graduate students for assistance to the extent of eight hours a week of teaching. It is due to the University of Washington to say that the tendency in that institution is toward the use of fewer graduate assistants in responsible teaching positions. This is indicated in the relatively smaller amount used for this purpose in 1911, unless this amount merely happens to be smaller for this period.

A further observation of this table, particularly the second part, shows the striking development of the funds during the past few years. There is manifest a uniform tendency toward the use of the fellowship and particularly for purposes of research and graduate study. A large number of institutions are waiting for adequate funds with which to establish fellowships, the principle already being fully appreciated. The figures for the last few years suggest nothing striking except the marked development at Wisconsin.

SUMMARY

The notion of fellowship funds is an old one. It originated with the obligation of local communities to assist worthy young people in their aspirations for social leadership. It has evolved with the means of educational support in general. At first, the plan was to assist the student, on the one hand, and the institution, on the other, the former by giving the student the opportunity to earn his living,

*See Table 10, p. 152.

†Wisconsin funds have jumped from $8,700 in 1911 to $18,350 for 1915, by far the most striking increase among the universities studied.

the latter by making available for the institution cheap assistance. Since the type of assistance demanded was largely of the teaching type, the teaching fellowship was popular.

With the fuller appreciation of the value of graduate study and research and the inadequacy of teaching or assistant fellowships to meet the need, the rise of more liberal fellowships was inevitable, whereby promising young people might give all their time to study and research. The rise of the university fellowship carrying fairly adequate stipends has resulted, so that nearly every institution has considered the question and favors the development of the funds.

As in the beginning of all educational movements in this country the fellowship originally was supported by benefaction, then by endowment funds. The development of college and university fellowships involved the use of funds belonging to the university for this purpose. Thus, support was met by annual appropriations from the funds of the institutions. In a few instances, for example, Kansas, appropriation is made by the state for the specific purpose.

The tendency expressed in the replies given to the questionnaire is toward the development of the funds. It is observed by some that the funds must be increased. There is practically a universal tendency to establish and enlarge the funds though there are a few of the older, conservative institutions which do not look with favor on any considerable expenditure of general income for this purpose. Among the state universities the fellowship is popular, even to the extent of calling out specific state legislation for the fund. A further striking tendency it to make the position of fellow one of responsibility for a definite piece of research, to remove from him all need for worry concerning support, and to give him direct instruction in the prosecution of his problem. Some say that he is to be relieved of all tasks such as marking papers, or doing routine, and even prodded to his task. Another tendency, how universal is hard to tell, seems to be to give fellowships to students who are candidates for advanced degrees.

From several quarters there has arisen an opposing tendency, on the grounds that the moneys thus spent for a few should be given for the assistance of the many. The justification for the establishment of these funds rests essentially on the purpose of their establishment. It would seem that the opposition is of the

same type that opposed public education among the colonies, when education was considered a matter of domestic concern, or that opposed public education supported by taxation, when schools were supported largely by private benefactions, or that opposed public supported secondary education, when only a small per cent were to have the advantages, or that opposed university education, when it was an individual benefit. As a matter of fact, the state is justified on the grounds that a leadership of this higher order is demanded to meet the problems of the day. The notion of social service underlies the whole development of the funds and the justification for the expenditure must rest eventually in the efficiency of the administration of the funds so that the results which are secured accord with the social purposes upon which the funds have always stood.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

"The expenditure for the public schools within the year reached the grand total of $482,886,793, which was 8 per cent more than for the year before. The per capita expenditure for the total population was $5.07; for the total school population, $9.19; for the total enrollment, $25.56; and for the total average attendance for the average school year of 158 days, $36.30."—PHILANDER PRIESTLEY CLAXTON. Extract from the Introduction to the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education, 1913.

SUMMARY SUGGESTIONS

The principles involved in this study have been emphasized sufficiently throughout the chapters to make it unnecessary to present any elaborate summary. That schools have been supported by co-operative methods has needed, perhaps, no proof, since to any observer the truth of this statement is obvious. The burden, rather, has been to analyze various situations to see how the various funds have co-operated to promote system and efficiency in these types. It has been shown that the spontaneity and the co-operation expressed in the struggles of the nation in its growth and development have been essential, determining factors in the evolution of means and methods of support.

This struggle for freedom and education began in the colonies where all joined to promote the interests of all. Gift, benefaction, grants of lands, appropriations, rates and tuition, bequest, taxation, and even the lottery, were expressions of voluntary efforts in behalf of education. It has been our purpose to emphasize and show this co-operation in the first section of the study. The rapid development of schools in the colonial period rested primarily upon the active interests of the pioneers who gave liberally for the "encouragement" of education because the school was essential to the preservation and promotion of their liberties.

Though grants of land had been made in the colonies, yet the Government at the close of the war for independence showed, in the land grant acts, her confidence in education as a means of developing the resources of the country. In the attempts to develop the country in order to pay the heavy national debt, and also to establish the nation firmly, the Government recognized the fact that education was not only the handmaiden of religion, but of all internal progress in a democracy. This is shown in the attitude of the Government. The grants of land and the appropriations of moneys became an effective means of establishing school systems, particularly by means of permanent school funds of various kinds. The second section shows, therefore, in detail how the Government has co-operated with other agencies in promoting education.

As pointed out, the co-operation of the Government in promot-

ing schools gave an impetus to the states. This came about partly through contact of pioneers with colonial methods and partly through the establishment of school funds. The growth of the country, the rise of voluntary systems in new states, the inadequacy of the administration of the permanent funds, with other influences, called out taxation as a more substantial means of support. Though taxation seems clearly to us to be the backbone of school support, the study of the rise of school systems shows how gradual was its growth in the sentiment of the people and how unpopular a scheme it was amidst the medley of methods of voluntary systems. But since other systems of support were rapidly becoming inadequate, the taxation of wealth came to be the only method of correlating and co-ordinating educational agencies about the central purpose of democracy. The struggle presented in the third section was one, therefore, for a democracy of a higher order. This gave rise to a reconstruction of old colonial methods and an evaluation of them in the light of progressive change.

Section four of the study shows how school funds have been made up for definite periods of years, primarily to show the relation of these co-operating agencies of support. This principle is shown for common schools, secondary schools, type city systems, normal schools, colleges, universities and technological schools, colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts, and other types. The charts and tables bring out these points clearly.

The concluding discussion emphasizes some significant developments of recent years in supporting education. For the common school system, it is shown that the extension of the scope and function of the high school and the establishment and maintenance of special schools have demanded additional levies, special levies, and some dependence, greater or less, upon voluntary efforts. The recent tendencies in providing for the support of training schools for teachers for the various types of schools are typified in city and county training. A discussion of fellowship funds has been introduced to show how funds are co-operative to encourage men of ability and purpose to continue their study in preparation of the highest type of leadership. It is to show further, though incidentally, how the spirit of the early colonies has been kept alive in the midst of the complex life of the present day. For each peck of

wheat given for poor, but worthy, students in Harvard College, thousands of dollars are given to students of modern times, and to the same end fundamentally.

In general, it seems that progress in a democracy is conditioned primarily upon the opportunity given for the expression of individual initiative, whether in benefaction, endowment, subscription, bequest, or taxation. The purpose which underlies the method is allied with the spirit of freedom and democracy, and the study shows that the development of taxation as the main support in no way prevents the fullest expression of individual interest and initiative. It is seen that the modern methods of support involve the principles of colonial and other methods, though raised to a higher power.

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